

The University of Chicago

TEACHER EDUCATION IN TENNESSEE

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE
FACULTY OF THE DIVISION OF THE
SOCIAL SCIENCES IN CANDIDACY FOR
THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

1935

By

RHEY BOYD PARSONS

Private Edition, Distributed by
THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO LIBRARIES
CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

A fortunate circumstance was the fact that during the scholastic year 1933-34 the Tennessee State Department of Education was unusually active in collecting information concerning public education in the state. This made possible a more complete study of the teaching personnel than could otherwise have been conducted, since the Commissioner of Education made available all findings of significance in this inquiry.

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PART I

INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Aim and Scope of the Study

The purpose of this study is three-fold: first, to trace the evolution of public education in Tennessee, with special reference to the development of teaching as a profession; second, to analyze existing conditions with respect to the teaching staff and teacher education; and third, to identify major issues which the State of Tennessee faces in developing a planned program of teacher education.

The historical background has been studied in order to secure perspective which will aid in an understanding of the present. The evolution of the Tennessee state educational organization is traced briefly to show the type of organization for which workers must be prepared, and to indicate problems of school administration which vitally concern the teaching personnel. The development of teaching as a profession in Tennessee is studied in considerable detail to aid in an understanding of existing conditions.

In studying the present situation regarding teacher education major emphasis has been placed upon two considerations: the relation of the present supply of teachers to the demand for teachers; and the program of teacher education actually in operation in the state. Other questions studied concerning present conditions either relate to or grow out of these two major problems.

The historical material used in the study was secured in the Capitol Library, Nashville, in the Peabody College library, and the University of Tennessee library. In the Capitol Library the primary sources consulted were all the Tennessee statutes concerning education which have been enacted in the history of the state, the latest codes and session laws of all other states, certain Tennessee legislative journals and other official reports, and all the reports which have been issued by the chief school officers of Tennessee. In addition, a number of books were studied in the Capitol Library as secondary sources of needed information. In the Peabody College library selected catalogues and official bulletins of the institution were studied as primary sources. In

the University of Tennessee library every available catalogue of the institution was studied as primary source material; and certain historical books were studied as secondary sources of information concerning the University.

The analysis of the existing situation is based upon data secured during the scholastic year 1933-34. The facts which are presented concerning administrative practices and procedures affecting the teaching personnel were obtained from official reports which were on file in the office of the Commissioner of Education.

A study of the relation of the supply of teachers to the demand for teachers was conducted by the State Department of Education in collaboration with a committee of three appointed by the Commissioner of Education, of which the investigator was one member. As a member of this committee the investigator visited several counties in order to secure needed data.

In studying the present situation in regard to teacher education in Tennessee, the investigator interviewed a number of educational leaders in the state, and he visited all of the thirty-nine colleges which are accredited by the State Department of Education. At each one of these institutions he secured statistics concerning enrollments in professional courses in Education, and the geographical distribution of the students in attendance at the school in 1933-34. He also secured recent catalogues and interviewed one or more officials at each of the colleges visited.

Some Pertinent Facts Concerning Tennessee

A brief account of the geography, history, government and educational status of Tennessee is here given in order to provide a background of information which will aid in understanding the problems encountered in the present investigation.

Tennessee with an area of 42,022 square miles is the thirty-fourth state in the Union in size. With 2,616,556 people it ranks sixteenth in population. It is largely a rural state, although four of its cities have a population of over 100,000. One of these, Memphis, on the Mississippi, has more than 250,000 population.

Tennessee is slightly over 100 miles in width, but the distance from the northeastern tip to the extreme southwestern corner is nearly 500 miles. Between the 6000 foot peaks of the Great Smoky Mountains in the east and the Mississippi River in the west there is a wide variety of territory.

The mountains which separate Tennessee from North Carolina descend rapidly to the valley of East Tennessee, which

is in reality a series of parallel valleys, fertile, well-watered and rich in natural resources, including power sites. This region has been industrialized more rapidly than any other in the state. Its possibilities have recently been recognized by the federal government in the establishment of the Tennessee Valley Authority.

As one surveys the state westward from the East Tennessee Valley he comes next to the eastern highland rim which includes several low-lying mountain ranges, and then to the region generally known as the Cumberland Plateau. Much of the territory in both of these areas is generally poor and undeveloped and lacking in transportation facilities.

Next to the west comes the central basin of Middle Tennessee, which contains large areas of fertile blue-grass land. Within recent years there has been in this region a great deal of industrial development.

Farther west comes the western highland rim, the narrow valley of the Tennessee River, and a somewhat elevated region just west of the river. Much of this section, like that which lies east of the central basin, ranks low in available wealth and remains sparsely populated and undeveloped.

Next comes the Gulf Coastal Plain, and finally a narrow strip of bottom land, paralleling the Mississippi River.

Roughly speaking, the profile of the state from east to west consists of the mountains which form a natural barrier between Tennessee and North Carolina, the eastern valley, the eastern highlands, the Cumberland Plateau, the central valley, the western highlands, and the Mississippi Valley.

Tennessee is the only state in the Union legally split into "Grand Divisions." The separation of the state into an East, a Middle and a West Tennessee, was originally occasioned by natural barriers: the Cumberland Mountains in the east and the Tennessee River in the west. The division has long been accepted as a matter of course by the people, and has been recognized in many laws of the state. For instance, in the early years there was a state treasurer for each grand division. At present each has its separate Court of Appeals. Three members of the State Board of Education must be chosen from each. Other examples of the legal recognition of the division might be cited. This division has probably contributed largely toward bringing about a spirit of sectional rivalry and jealousy which has hindered the progress of the state. However, with the coming of good roads and the spread of enlightenment, this unfortunate spirit among the people is fast disappearing.

Tennessee was first made known to the English by Daniel Boone about 1769. The first settlement in the state, at Watauga

in East Tennessee, was established in the same year. From the Revolution to 1790 it was a part of North Carolina and from 1777 was organized as the County of Washington. In 1778 a settlement was made on the Cumberland River, near the site of Nashville, and an attempt was made to establish a separate government called the State of Franklin, under John Sevier as governor. In 1783 the region was included in the territory of the United States by the Treaty of Paris. In 1790 North Carolina relinquished her claim to the territory and Tennessee was organized as the "Territory South of the Ohio River." Tennessee was admitted in 1796 as the sixteenth state of the Union.

There have been four constitutional conventions in the history of Tennessee. The first, in 1796, drafted a constitution which was practically the same as that then in force in North Carolina and showed the influence of the colonial development of that state. This constitution was not submitted to the people for ratification. The second convention met in 1834 and the constitution which it drew up was ratified by the people on March 6, 1835. This constitution was amended by a third convention in 1865 so as to abolish slavery and declare secession null and void. The fourth convention wrote the third constitution in 1870.

The Constitution of 1870, admittedly obsolete and inadequate to present day needs, is still in force in the state. It has never been amended in the sixty-five years since its adoption and the steps required to amend it are lengthy and complicated. Indeed, it would be easier to call a new constitutional convention than to amend the present constitution. A new constitution for the state is favored by liberal leaders generally, but the effort to secure one continues to be blocked by conservative elements.

The sectional strife already referred to in connection with the division of the state was tremendously increased and embittered when, during the Civil War, Tennessee seceded, but East Tennessee as a section remained loyal to the Union. The rancor brought about by this split in loyalties has not yet died out entirely.

The events of the Reconstruction Period served only to intensify these differences. When Tennessee was reorganized and restored to the Union, July 24, 1866, having ratified the Federal Constitution with new amendments, and adopted anti-slavery amendments to the state constitution, control of the state passed into the hands of a "carpetbagger" legislature dominated by a partisan anti-slavery governor from East Tennessee. This government apparently seized every opportunity to oppress and antagonize the Southern whites who had supported the Confederacy, even depriving them of the franchise. Although sanity was gradually restored,

the sectional bitterness of the Reconstruction days still smoulders in the hearts of many in Tennessee, particularly, of course, among the older generation. Perhaps no state in the Union has suffered so much as Tennessee from factors which divide it against itself and thus make state-wide planning for the general welfare dishearteningly difficult.

It was demonstrated in a recent study¹ that one of the greatest single hindrances to progress in Tennessee is the antiquated system of county government. The state has ninety-five counties, and each is a separate governmental unit. There are fifteen counties which have decreased steadily in population since 1900. There is a county which has a total population of only 3,516; a county with a density of population of only twelve persons per square mile; a county with a total area of only 106 square miles.

Sims² shows that some counties have more officials than are needed to transact county business, that some officials are unfit for their positions, and that the control of county fiscal affairs by the magistrates' court is often ineffective.

Sims recommends that the number of counties be reduced from ninety-five to thirteen. However, so drastic a change would probably be virtually impossible, at least for the present, due to sentiments of local pride and jealousy among the people and to the very powerful opposition which would be brought to bear by the county officials themselves.

There appears to be, however, a growing sentiment in the state in favor of reform in county government. It is hoped by progressive elements in the citizenship that eventually a number of county consolidations can be brought about through the approval of the people of the counties affected. It is hoped also that counties which have more officials than are needed can be led to see the wisdom of consolidating offices and thus reducing the expense of county government.

It is difficult to give the State of Tennessee any exact ranking among the states as regards resources. It is rich in natural resources, but relatively poor in available wealth. It is believed to have great possibilities for industrial development because of the availability of cheap electric energy. The state's present bonded indebtedness is high, about \$95,000,000. It has, however, balanced its budget and is meeting current expenses and

¹Carlton C. Sims, "County Government in Tennessee," Ph.D. thesis, University of Chicago, 1932.

²Ibid., pp. 142, ff.

is amortizing the bonded indebtedness according to schedule. Its bonds are in demand. The state has a fine system of paved roads and river bridges. Its state buildings and the buildings and grounds of state institutions are in good repair.

Educationally the State of Tennessee ranks low on the average. According to the United States census for 1930, Tennessee ranked fortieth in per cent of literacy in the total population. This is the rank held in 1920. In these ten years the per cent of illiteracy in the state was reduced from 10.3 to 7.2, but there was no gain in relative rank. In 1930 the total number of persons in the state more than ten years old who were unable to read or write was 145,460. Tennessee in 1930 stood thirty-eighth in per cent of school population in daily attendance, thirty-seventh in days attended by each child, fortieth in number of days schools were in session, forty-eighth in per cent of total enrollment in high school, forty-fifth in expenditure per teacher employed, forty-fourth as measured by the Ayres Index.¹ In percentage of students in college in 1921 Tennessee ranked forty-ninth. However she had risen to forty-eighth in 1923 and is apparently now about fortieth. Tennessee's best showing educationally is in the percentage of students in state colleges, where she ranked twelfth in 1930.

¹Leonard P. Ayres, An Index Number for State School Systems, Russell Sage Foundation, 1920.

CHAPTER II

EVOLUTION OF THE TENNESSEE STATE EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the present chapter is to trace briefly the steps in the evolution of the Tennessee state educational organization for which workers must be prepared, and to indicate problems of school administration which vitally concern the teaching personnel. The preparation of an adequate supply of teachers for the state is considered a legitimate function of government and a phase of public education in general and of higher education in particular. A background of understanding of the educational system of the state is essential to an intelligent study of the problems of teacher education in the state.

Constitutional Provisions

No trace of an idea of a state educational system can be found in the constitution of 1796. Both to the people and to their lawmakers at that time the idea of mass education at public expense was foreign.

But by the time the constitutional convention met in 1834 people were beginning to realize that in a democracy the state must for its own protection assume at least a modicum of responsibility for the education of its future citizens. In this second constitution of the state a section was adopted concerning education. But it was permissive rather than mandatory: in effect, it provided merely that the legislature should "cherish literature and science" and that the common school fund should be used for the "support and encouragement of common schools."¹

The constitution of 1870, which is still in force, contains a provision concerning education which is largely a verbatim copy of the section in the constitution of 1834, the only important change being a stipulation that the poll tax should be used "for educational purposes."² The basic law of the state is still

¹Tennessee Journal of Constitutional Convention, 1834,
pp. 405-406.

²Art. XII, sec. 11.

largely permissive rather than mandatory or prescriptive in its provisions concerning public education.

It is not necessary to attempt to say whether the framers of the constitution of Tennessee made the section concerning education brief and general in its provisions, because they did not regard public education as seriously as similar bodies do now, or because they were wise in sensing the form in which basic law should be phrased. But students of the subject generally agree that it is fortunate that the legislature of Tennessee is in the main free to create a public school system without the restriction of specific constitutional provisions.

Education At First Considered A Private Duty

Tennessee, following what seems to have been the common practice in the development of educational facilities, began at the top with college and academy education and ignored the need of elementary education for all the children of all the people.

The early history of education in Tennessee is the story of the early colleges and academies, the latter being in the main private schools taught usually by ministers who had come into the territory for purposes of evangelization. From the time North Carolina gave legislative sanction in 1793 to Samuel Doak to establish Martin Academy in Washington County until the year 1889 when the last academy was chartered in Tennessee, there were approximately five hundred academies granted charters by the State Legislature. Practically every one of these schools has long since passed away, leaving behind them for the most part no written records of any sort.¹

But it would be erroneous to conclude that the scarcity of legislation on the subject of education in the early history of the state necessarily indicates a lack of interest in education on the part of the early inhabitants. Instead, it indicates merely that the corporate group considered that the responsibility of educating the youth rested upon individual parents rather than upon the state.

School Lands

The history of the common schools is, in the main, the history of public lands in Tennessee, and the history of public lands in Tennessee is the history of confusion. This confusion, which is much too intricate to unravel in a short

¹Robert H. White, Development of the Tennessee State Educational Organization, 1796-1929, p. 10. Kingsport, Tennessee: Kingsport Press, 1929.

space, originated in the Act of Cession, and more than three hundred acts have been passed upon subjects growing out of the relation between the public schools and the school lands of the state.¹

Many writers have tried to unravel this perplexing problem of the public school lands in Tennessee. White² has given an enlightening account of it. There is space here to present the subject only in its barest outlines.

By a law passed by the Federal Congress in 1806³ the United States ceded to the State of Tennessee certain areas of public lands. In return for this grant to the state, Tennessee agreed: (1) to satisfy all the land claims of North Carolina out of a part of Tennessee to be known as the Congressional Reservation; (2) to cede all unoccupied, unallotted public lands west of a certain line to the federal government; (3) to allot 100,000 acres of land to two colleges, one to be located in East Tennessee and one in what was then known as West Tennessee, now Middle Tennessee; (4) to appropriate 100,000 acres for the use of academies, one in each county; (5) to designate one section out of each township of public land ceded by the government to the state, where existing claims would permit, "which should be appropriated for the use of schools for the instruction of children forever." It was further specified that land allotted to colleges and academies should not be sold for less than two dollars per acre, provided that wherever such lands were already occupied the occupants should be allowed to perfect their titles at one dollar per acre.

No doubt the framers of this law acted with the best of good intentions, but it is probable that the legislation did, on the whole, more harm than good. The educational institutions which were the recipients of the land were sorely disappointed in the amount of income which they received from it. The source of the unfortunate difficulty lay in the fact that too much of this land was already occupied by settlers who considered themselves owners of it by right of homestead. They were uniformly unwilling, and in most cases unable, to pay either rent or a purchase price of a dollar per acre. Moreover, feeling that it was their land already, they bitterly resented any attempt to make them pay for it. Most of this resentment was directed against the unfortunate institutions which attempted to collect the bounty which, under the Act of 1806, they were supposed to receive. Thus, the intended

¹James Phelan, History of Tennessee, p. 233. Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1888.

²Op. cit.

³Acts of Ninth Congress, Statute I, chap. 31.

recipients of the bounty not only got little from it but were placed under the trying handicap of having to cope with public hatred from many quarters.

Perhaps an even more unfortunate result of the congressional land grant act of 1806 was that the citizens and lawmakers of Tennessee appeared to believe that the problem of school finance had been solved with its passage. This belief persisted for many years thereafter and undoubtedly delayed the enactment of legislation providing taxes for the support of schools.

The Permanent School Fund

Another baffling question, which has never been completely solved, involves the so-called permanent school fund. During a period of almost half a century prior to the opening of the Civil War Tennessee was accumulating such a fund from revenues derived from various sources, such as, rent and sale of public lands, various forms of occupation and privilege taxes, the proceeds of fines for certain offenses, dividends on stock owned in state banks, and gifts from various sources. A total of about \$1,500,000 was accumulated in the fund.

When the Civil War was over and Tennessee was restored to the Union, the fund was not to be found, and it has never been determined with certainty what became of it. It is probable that the accusation of William G. Brownlow, the anti-Confederacy governor during the Reconstruction period, was true, namely, that the money had been invested in Confederate bonds and the proceeds used for military purposes. After the failure of the Rebellion, the bonds were, of course, repudiated.

From 1865 to 1873 there was much bitter agitation concerning this matter. Resolutions were passed by the legislature and investigating committees appointed. A law was passed in 1866¹ declaring that available resources of the Bank of Tennessee must be turned over to the school fund, only to be declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court of the state as a violation of the bank's contract with its other creditors.² Isham G. Harris, who had been governor of Tennessee while it was a part of the Confederacy, was tried for fraudulent use of the fund but was acquitted.

¹Acts of 1865-66, chap. 28.

²Tennessee Reports, 5 Baxter 65.

Finally, in 1873, the legislature found a way out of the difficulty.¹ It adopted the fictitious sum of \$2,512,500 as the permanent school fund. This sum was arrived at by adding to the original \$1,500,000 the accrued interest from 1861 to 1873. On this imaginary fund the state has paid to the schools interest at the rate of six per cent per annum from 1873 to the present time.

This act of legislative legerdemain was of very doubtful benefit to the state in the last analysis, because legislatures for many years thereafter seem to have satisfied their consciences in regard to schools by merely providing for the payment of the interest on the "permanent school fund." Probably this delayed the consideration of plans for adequately financing public education through taxation. This still remains one of the perplexing problems facing the state.

Pauper Schools

One of the influences which impeded the development of public schools in Tennessee was the idea that education at public expense was for pauper children who could afford no other kind of education. This idea is clearly visible in the wording of an act passed in 1815, which was the first step taken to provide any educational facilities in the state aside from those schools supported by the proceeds of the public school lands. The caption of this bill stated that it was "to provide for the education of the orphans of those persons who have died in the service of their country." The body of the act contained even more unfortunate language. It stated that the purpose of the tax was to raise funds "sufficient to educate and school those poor orphans who have no property to support and educate them."²

A careful search of official records in the state archives has failed to locate any reports showing what was done, if anything, under the provisions of this so-called educational law. Obviously enough, this act revealed that the lawmakers at the time had no conception of any obligation on the part of the state to provide educational facilities open and adapted to the needs of all types of the State's children.³

It is clear that this act of 1815 was merely a feeble gesture at a school law, and it is probable that no action whatever followed its passage.

¹Acts of Tennessee, 1873, chap. 25, sec. 34.

²Acts of Tennessee, 1815, chap. 49.

³White, op. cit., p. 29.

The idea of pauper schools persisted and is found again in an act passed in 1823, one section of which provided that the board of school commissioners for each county

. . . . shall appropriate all moneys by them received under the provisions of this act to the education of the poor, either by establishing poor schools in their respective counties, or by paying the tuition of poor children in schools which are, or may be, established in their respective counties, as to them shall seem best, and in the purchase of books for the use of such children.¹

It will be noted that, under the wording of this act, whether the school fund was used to establish "poor schools" or to pay the tuition of poor children in the established schools, the social stigma of pauperism was placed upon the recipients of the fund. Here again, however, the absence of any evidence to the contrary leads one to believe that few counties, if any, paid any attention to the law.

It must be remembered that in Tennessee a hundred years ago communication was so little developed that scores of communities and many counties were almost completely cut off from contact with the outside world. For this reason, if for no other, laws passed at the capital frequently had little or no effect on the conduct of local affairs in many communities, few of whose inhabitants even heard of the laws in many cases.

A trace of the taint of the pauper school idea is still found in an act passed in 1829, section 23 of which provides that the commissioners in each county may expend as much as \$20.00 annually from the school fund in the purchase of "school books and writing paper" in behalf of "those children whose parents are unable to purchase books for them."² However, section 24 of the same act strikes a more modern note:

It shall be the duty of the trustees of the several school districts, so far as practicable, to induce all children within the district under the age of fifteen years to be sent to school, and no distinction shall be made between rich and poor, but said school shall be open and free to all.

Although little or no action was ever taken under this law, it marks the beginning of the idea of public education at public expense in Tennessee. Here, for the first time, there is attached to the law no social discrimination detrimental to those who avail themselves of its benefits.

Nevertheless, the pauper school idea was not wiped out but

¹Acts of 1823, chap. 49.

²Acts of Tennessee, 1829, chap. 107.

persisted stubbornly long afterwards. In 1837, a joing committee of both Houses of the Tennessee Legislature observed that "the inefficiency of a system of free schools has been proved not only by our own experience, but by the example of Connecticut and of other states."¹

That the first general school law passed in Tennessee was predicated upon the principle that public schools are not necessarily free schools is clearly shown by the following excerpt from its provisions:

Sec. 22.- When the public funds apportioned to any district shall be insufficient to pay the teachers' wages, the commissioners of such district shall have the power to collect the residue of such wages from parents, guardians and others who may have derived benefit from the school by sending children thereto, and shall apportion the amount to be collected from each according to the number of children sent by each and the length of time such children have been at school.

Sec. 23.- It shall be the duty of every person sending a child to school to provide his just proportion of fuel for the use of the school, and the proportion of fuel which any person sending children to the school shall be liable to provide shall be determined by the commissioners of the school district according to the number of children sent by each; but such indigent persons as in the judgment of the commissioners shall be unable to provide the same, shall be exempted from such liability.²

An act³ passed two years later makes mention of the payment by pupils attending a school not in their own district of the customary amount of tuition required in the school attended.

Perhaps it should be stated that the pauper school idea persisted in many northern as well as southern states in the period before the Civil War. In some states, notably Pennsylvania and New Jersey, the question became a bitterly fought issue. Also the so-called rate bill, or tuition fee, was quite common in northern as well as southern states before 1860.³

Further Legislation Before the Civil War

From the year 1830 until the Civil War a number of legislative acts passed had some bearing upon education. Most of these

¹Report, 1837, p. 4.

²Acts of 1838, chap. 147.

³Acts of 1839-40, chap. 38.

⁴E.P. Cubberley, History of Education, pp. 679-686.
Boston, Mass: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920.

acts were concerned with the school lands or the school fund in some way, many of them were never carried out, and as a whole they made no very significant advances toward a state system of public education.

In 1830, "An act to establish a system of common schools and to appropriate the school funds of the state"¹ provided for the appointment of school commissioners in each county and for dividing the counties into school districts. So little attention was paid to this law that an act was passed the following year² directing counties which had not already done so to comply with it.

Again in 1838, the legislature passed "An act to establish a system of common schools in Tennessee."³ The use of this title may give some indication of the effectiveness of earlier laws which had employed the same title. Two years later,⁴ an act was passed "to re-enact and amend" the law of 1838, thus tacitly admitting that it had not proved satisfactory. Further amendments were passed from time to time.⁵

A significant step was taken in 1854; for the first time a tax was levied upon both property and polls for the support of common schools. "An act to establish a system of common schools in this state" provided "that a tax of twenty-five cents on the polls, and two and a half cents on the hundred dollars of all the taxable property of the state, shall be levied for common schools."

Thus it appears that when Tennessee entered the Civil War it had passed many laws dealing with public education, but they had been, on the whole, ineffective. Such good schools as it had were chiefly the result of local or private initiative. Educationally each community had practically remained a law unto itself, taking what little money it could get from the state, supplementing it as it was able, and then running its schools in any way it saw fit. There was still no state system of public education.

¹Acts of 1829-30, chap. 107.

²Acts of 1831, chap. 16.

³Acts of 1838, chap. 147.

⁴Acts of 1839-40, chap. 38.

⁵Acts of 1841-42, chap. 47; Acts of 1843-44, chap. 165; Acts of 1843-44, chap. 231; Acts of 1845, chap. 54; Acts of 1845, chap. 112; Acts of 1851, chap. 150.

⁶Acts of 1853-54, chap. 71.

The Period From the Civil War Until 1873

The bitterness which is the aftermath of war gripped Tennessee during the days of the Reconstruction. Neither side was quick to forgive. The majority of the people of the state, chiefly drawn from the middle and western sections, were disfranchised for having supported the Confederacy. The state was ruled by a minority from the eastern section of the state which was Union in sympathy. The general attitude of the ruling group was perhaps adequately expressed by Brownlow, the anti-Confederacy Reconstruction governor, when he said of the disappearance of the school fund (see foregoing) that "perhaps a more perfidious act than the appropriation of this fund to treasonable purposes was not committed during the late perfidious rebellion."¹

In the midst of all this partisan dissention and bitterness there was passed by the Reconstruction legislature the most progressive school law which Tennessee had known up to that time. This act was passed in 1867 and was called "An act to provide for the reorganization, supervision, and maintenance of the common schools."² Among other things, it reestablished the office of state superintendent and created that of county superintendent. It made provision for the examination and certification of teachers.

Moreover, under its provisions a very able man was elected to the office of State Superintendent, General John H. Eaton, Jr., a Union army officer who had remained behind in Tennessee after the close of the War. Under date of October 7, 1869, Eaton published a report of his work as State Superintendent, which not only contains a wealth of interesting and valuable material concerning education in Tennessee but espouses a number of principles of administration which are considered sound today and which were definitely progressive at that time. For example, Eaton opposed the dividing of counties into small school districts, urged the establishment of schools for the adequate training of teachers, and recommended the employment of women teachers -- still an almost unheard of thing in Tennessee in 1869. This publication might well be compared with the more famous reports of Horace Mann.

An appendix to Eaton's report contains interesting reports from different counties in the state. The following from Fentress County, dated February 20, 1869, is typical and gives an insight

¹Senate Journal, 1865-66, p. 18.

²Acts of 1866-67, chap. 27.

into conditions at the time:

We were unable to open any schools in our county in 1868, as all of our school houses were destroyed during the war, and it was impossible to impress our people with sufficient confidence in the certainty of receiving funds from the state with which to carry them on to build the necessary houses; but I trust we shall be able to perfect an organization this year.¹

It seems probable that if the act of 1867 had been allowed to stand, and if the state had been willing to follow the leadership of Superintendent Eaton, progress in public education in Tennessee would have been greatly accelerated. But the feeling against the government was so high in many sections that the majority of citizens refused to recognize the new law or to act upon it. In December, 1869, the normal political majority of the state having returned to power, the law was repealed,² the offices of state and county superintendent were abolished, and the mandatory tax provisions were made permissive. But almost immediately afterwards a tendency to enact more progressive school legislation began to manifest itself.

In 1870, a called session of the legislature passed "An act to re-organize and regulate common schools." Section 29 of this act reads in part:

The common school commissioners for the various school districts in the several counties of the state shall constitute a Board of Education for their respective counties, and shall have the control and regulation of the common schools thereof, and prescribe the rules for their government.³

While perhaps marking a step forward, this law was generally ineffectual. It made no provision for either a county or a state superintendent; and it left each county free as before to continue the management of its own educational affairs with no progressive changes, if none was desired.

Two more laws were passed by a second called session of the legislature in 1871, which show even more clearly than that of 1870 that people were beginning to realize that existing conditions were unsatisfactory. The first of these⁴ created once more the office of superintendent of public instruction but, "for reasons of economy," the Treasurer of the State was made ex-officio the

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1869, Appendix,
p. cxxiii.

²Acts of 1869-70, chap. 33.

³Acts of 1869-70, 2d sess., chap. 64.

⁴Acts of 1871. 2d called sess., chap. 107.

holder of the office. The second¹ provided "That the commissioners of the school districts, in the capacity of a county board of education, may elect or appoint a county superintendent of common schools." It will be noted that here again the provisions of the law are permissive rather than mandatory.

The General School Law of 1873

In 1873, the law which is the basis of public education in Tennessee was enacted.² Although the law of 1873 would not be considered a satisfactory school law today, it represented a much needed forward step at the time it was passed.

It provided that schools should be free to persons between the ages of six and twenty-one. It designated as the permanent school fund the fictitious sum of \$2,512,500 (see pages 11 and 12) and provided that the annual proceeds of this fund, plus any money that might come into the State Treasury for the purpose from any source whatever, should constitute the annual fund for the support of public schools. Furthermore, it levied, for their support, a poll tax of one dollar on every male inhabitant of the state and a tax of one and one-half mills on the dollar on all property within the state subject to taxation.

It provided for a school term of five months and authorized county courts to levy taxes to supplement the state fund where the state fund was insufficient to keep the schools open for that length of time. In this provision, however, the permissive feature, leaving the matter finally to the discretion of local authorities, once again delayed the actual progress which was so much needed. For many years county courts in various counties either refused to levy a county school tax or levied one so small that it was inadequate for the purpose.

Other provisions of the law of 1873 will be presented in later sections of this chapter.

Slow Growth of Public Education After 1873

At the time of the passage of the general school law of 1873, education in Tennessee had reached a low ebb. It would be difficult to exaggerate the conditions that prevailed. Many counties had had practically no schools since before the Civil War. There were few school houses in existence. The people, poor

¹Acts of 1871, 2d called sess., chap. 110.

²Acts of 1873, chap. 25.

and discouraged, were in mortal fear of taxes.

On March 4, 1872, the assistant superintendent reported:

Less than thirty counties have levied a tax for school purposes. . . .

. . . . A very few counties have schools at present in operation, and a degree of languor and inaction prevails throughout the state that bodes anything else but good to our educational interests. . . .

. . . . In many of the counties where a school tax has been levied, Commissioners have been elected who are opposed to any system of public instruction, and feel a greater desire to make public schools unpopular by making them inefficient and of but little value, than to see them gaining ground and winning their way to public favor by educating, elevating and refining the public heart and mind. . . .¹

. . . . The greatest obstacles to be overcome in the establishment of a system of public instruction in our state are the inherited ideas that education should be left to private enterprise, and that property should not be taxed to educate those without means: . . .²

Though of course improvement was made, it must not be assumed that, because the law of 1873 was so definite an advance in the legal status of public education in Tennessee, better public schools developed at once throughout the state. The unfavorable conditions which prevailed before the passage of the law continued for a long time in many localities. After the enactment of the law there still remained a long and difficult struggle before the design of the law could be realized in the form of a more or less adequate state-wide system of public schools actually in operation.

The story of the slow growth of public education is vividly described in the annual reports of the county superintendents to the state superintendents. The limitations of space make liberal quotations from these reports impossible here. But the following brief quotations from selected reports will serve to give an appreciation of the difficulties encountered by the friends of public education in Tennessee during the period following the Civil War.

¹Report of Hon. Wm. Morrow, Superintendent of Public Instruction, ex-officio, to the called session of the 37th General Assembly of the State of Tennessee, embracing a report by the assistant superintendent, J.B. Killebrew, p. 26.

²Ibid., p. 33.

1874. Benton County. We have had no public and few private schools for years.¹

1877. Decatur County. There is scarcely a teacher in the county who can stand an examination.²

1877. Sumner County. That which most impedes progress in education is the general apathy of the people.³

1878. Coffee County. The schools are all taught in churches except a few in school houses erected the present year.⁴

1884. Lawrence County. Another great hindrance to progress is a want of suitable books. No uniformity in any of the schools. Many of the books in use are of forty years ago. Some schools have a dozen different kinds of arithmetic, grammar, geography, etc.⁵

1887. Bledsoe County. The usual prejudice against female teachers is still kept up in this county.⁶

1892. Jackson County. We are still in need of more money, for as yet we have not been able to run the schools five months throughout the county. But how to get it is the trouble, when the County Court is so immovable from the old basis, and a few wealthy, narrow-minded men cry 'Away with the public schools!' and teach their children to believe they are too good to mingle with the poor children of the county.⁷

1905. Anderson County. There are a great many people in Anderson County, and also in the state generally, who are very negligent in regard to sending their children to school. In my opinion there is only one way to reach these students, and that is with a compulsory school law.⁸

An objective measure of the slow growth of public education in the state since the enactment of the basic law of 1873 is presented in the state superintendent's report for 1922,⁹ which gives Tennessee the following rankings, based upon a perfect score of 100, according to the Ayres Index: 1890, 21.01; 1900, 22.23; 1910, 29.49; 1918, 35.14; 1922, 45.49.

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1874, p. 38.

²Report of the State Superintendent, 1877, p. 36.

³Report of the State Superintendent, 1877, p. 64.

⁴Report of the State Superintendent, 1878, p. 85.

⁵Report of the State Superintendent, 1884, p. 140.

⁶Report of the State Superintendent, 1887, p. 179.

⁷Report of the State Superintendent, 1892, p. 183.

⁸Report of the State Superintendent, 1905, p. 151.

⁹Report of the State Superintendent, 1922, p. 68.

Until the opening of the twentieth century Tennessee can hardly be said to have had a state-wide system of public education actually in operation. During the present century notable progress has been made, although the system, of course, still leaves a good deal to be desired.

Dr. P.P. Claxton, perhaps Tennessee's most noted educator, said to the investigator in an interview recently:

The problem which faces the educational leaders of Tennessee today is infinitely more difficult than that which we faced thirty years ago. At that time we were making a fight for the establishment of schools. Now we seek a quality product. It is easier to convince people they need schools than to convince them they need good schools.

The So-Called Secondary School

In 1891, Tennessee made her first legal gesture toward the development of secondary education at public expense. An act of that year¹ created an organization for the public schools which was very novel and which was much like the elementary school-junior high school arrangement of today.

It provided that there should be two classes of district public schools, designated respectively Primary Schools and Secondary Schools. The course of study in the primary school should consist of five grades and that of the secondary school eight grades -- the first five grades in each being identical.

Every district was required to have a primary school. It was suggested that, wherever possible, at least one school in the district be extended to include the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades and thus become a secondary school.

In the primary schools ordinary common school subjects were taught. In the three upper grades of the secondary schools the following additional subjects were included: Elementary Geology of Tennessee, Elementary Principles of Agriculture, Elements of Algebra, Elements of Plane Geometry, Elements of Natural Philosophy, Bookkeeping, Elementary Physiology and Hygiene, Elements of Civil Government, and Rhetoric or Higher English.

Secondary schools sprang up quickly all over the state. In 1900 there were 6,820 primary schools and 993 secondary schools.² In 1911 there were 5,854 primary schools and 1,112

¹Acts of 1891, chap. 132.

²Report of the State Superintendent, 1900, p. 39.

secondary schools.¹ The secondary schools continued in operation until 1917, almost twenty years after the first high school law was passed. Thus, during most of their existence their function conflicted with that of the public high school, causing wasteful duplication and confusion.

The real contribution of these so-called secondary schools to public education in Tennessee is difficult to evaluate. On the one hand, it is possible that they served a useful function in paving the way for the introduction of the public high school. Also, the certain amount of general education which they gave the youth of the state during the period of their operation must be considered. On the other hand, it is not improbable that they actually delayed the development of a state-wide program of high schools.

Possibly the following statement from the Third Annual Report of the State High School Inspector, rendered June 30, 1912,² gives a fair estimate of the secondary schools:

The so-called secondary schools were established at the expense of the elementary schools of the State, and the good results of these schools have never been commensurate with the cost in money and time taken from the primary grades. . . .

Besides, the secondary school does not articulate with college, neither does it give any definite vocational training.

Development of the High School

It seems that the term "high school" came rather early into the vocabulary of Tennesseans. It was at first used, however, to designate private schools which were in reality academies. For instance, in 1859, an act was passed,³ incorporating a school "under the name and style of Bethany High School."

The few public high schools which existed in the state in the latter part of the nineteenth century were established independently by the cities in which they were located. But it was not until the turn of the century that Tennessee, through its legislature, made any provision for the establishment of public high schools. In 1899 a law was enacted, section one of which read as follows:

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1911-12, p. 37.

²Report of the State Superintendent, 1911-12, pp. 216-217.

³Acts of 1859-60, chap. 57.

Whenever it shall appear to the County Court of any county that the public interest requires it, said Court shall have power to provide for establishing and maintaining one or more county high schools for the instruction of the children of the county.¹

The act vested control of high schools, in counties which elected to establish them, in a county high school board of education.

It will be noted, of course, that this is a permissive and not a mandatory law. The slowness with which counties put the law into effect is shown by the fact that in 1905 only five counties had established high schools and in 1906 only fifteen.² In 1916 only forty-two of the ninety-six counties had four year high schools.³

An act passed in 1907⁴ provided that county boards were authorized to pay the tuition of high school pupils in either city high schools or private schools. Certain counties still avail themselves of the privileges conferred by this act.

Another law of 1907⁵ provided for the classification of high schools into first, second, or third class, according to whether they were two year, three year, or four year high schools.

The office of State High School Inspector was created by a provision of the General Education Bill of 1909.⁶

The confusion mentioned above, occasioned by the presence in the state of so-called secondary schools and high schools, was finally eliminated by an act of 1917⁷ which abolished the secondary schools and provided for an eight-grade elementary school and two-year, three-year and four-year high schools.

Even this law left the establishment of high schools optional with the counties involved. But finally, in 1921, a law⁸ was passed which made the establishment of at least one first class, or four-year, high school in each county mandatory. By an act passed in 1923⁹ three year high schools were discontinued.

¹Acts of 1899, chap. 279.

²Report of the State Superintendent, 1906, pp. 26-27.

³Report of the State Superintendent, 1915-16, pp. 109-114.

⁴Acts of 1907, chap. 520.

⁵Acts of 1907, chap. 264.

⁶Acts of 1909, chap. 264.

⁷Acts of 1917, chap. 96.

⁸Acts of 1921, chap. 40.

⁹Acts of 1923, chap. 79.

Although for years so-called junior high schools had been in existence in various places in the state, this form of school organization was not legally recognized in the general school law until 1931. In that year a law was passed which was designed to be sufficiently flexible to meet the needs of every county and section of the state.¹ It provides for three forms of junior high schools and two forms of senior high schools. The forms of junior high schools provided are: (1) those including grades nine and ten; (2) those including grades seven, eight and nine; and (3) those including grades seven, eight, nine and ten. Senior high schools provided are: (1) those with grades nine, ten, eleven, and twelve; and (2) those with grades ten, eleven and twelve. The latest available records show that not a single county has yet taken advantage of the provisions of this law to reorganize its school system. Of course, this may be due to the distressing economic conditions of the past few years.

A backward step was taken during the legislative session of 1933, when a few counties secured the passage of private acts exempting them from the compulsory requirement of maintaining one four-year high school in each county.

The Educational Campaigns

Even in so brief a historical sketch as this, some mention should be made of the educational campaigns which were carried on between 1903 and 1912 by Dr. P. P. Claxton and his associates and which performed such a valuable service through arousing interest in public education in all parts of the state.

On April 7, 8, and 9, 1903, an educational conference was held at the Peabody Normal College under the direction of the State Department, to which were invited all County superintendents, school directors and friends of education. . . . Over 80% of the County superintendents of the State and a large number of editors and other friends of education attended the meeting.²

It was decided to undertake then a thorough campaign of the state for better schools, more money, better buildings and better teachers. This campaign has been carried on in all parts of the state and educational gatherings have been held in every county.³

The attendance at these gatherings ranged from a few hundred to five thousand, and the degree of interest manifested showed that

¹Acts of 1931, chap. 71.

²Report of the State Superintendent, 1903, p. 22.

³Report of the State Superintendent, 1905, p. 18.

the people desired better conditions. The Southern Education Board furnished money for carrying on the campaign, and the fund was administered by Dr. P. P. Claxton, who volunteered his services to the state without cost. Claxton also directed the campaign in the eastern section of the state.

On May 3, 1907, a representative body of citizens met at Nashville and formed "The Co-operative Education Association of Tennessee."¹ Out of this movement county and local "School Improvement Associations" developed in many counties and communities. These associations performed a very valuable service by developing the civic pride of the people in regard to education, and in this work also the influence of Claxton was prominent. In the State Superintendent's Report for 1911-12, the following statement appears:

School Improvement Associations have been organized in nearly every county in the state - some counties have as many as 47 associations. It is estimated that there are about 1500 associations in the state, with a membership of about 60,000. These extend from the rural mountain schools to the cities. About \$97,000 has been raised and expended for school improvement the past year through these associations.²

After this time the associations were discontinued as such, but the boys' and girls' clubs and the Parent-Teacher Associations, into which they developed, carried on their work.

The same report chronicles the last of these great educational campaigns:

A series of school rallies covering every county in the state was held during the months of August, September, and October, 1912. The campaign was carried on simultaneously in the three grand divisions. . . . Great interest was manifested in the issues involved in the campaign and large and representative audiences were present in most of the counties. The attendance ranged from 150 to 5000, and a conservative estimate places the total attendance at all the meetings at 75,000.³

It would probably be hard to over-state the contribution which Dr. Claxton and his associates made to education in Tennessee by carrying the message of public education, with almost evangelical fervor, to every hamlet and village in the state. One wonders what might be the result today if such a campaign were carried on by men who would present a convincing array of facts about the present conditions and needs of public education in the state.

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1907-08, p. 44.

²Report of the State Superintendent, 1911-12, p. 415.

³Report of the State Superintendent, 1911-12, p. 57.

The Unit of Local Administrative Control

For over a hundred years Tennessee has been struggling with the problem as to what area shall constitute the unit for local administrative control of schools, and the question is not solved yet. Should the local unit be the area served by a given school? Should it be a justice's district? Should it be a county? These are the questions which have vexed lawmakers.

Before 1838 no definite scheme had been enacted into law. The pauper school law of 1815 (see page 12) provided for the administration of the provisions of the act by the county court. Sometimes an area of school lands was made a local unit for the establishment and control of a school or schools.¹ At least two curiously worded laws designated an area known as a "captain's company" as a school district.²

Finally, in 1838, an act was passed which made the justice's district the unit for local school administration.³ But the law contained a limiting clause to the effect that the justices' districts should constitute the common school districts "for the present." Only two years later a new law⁴ provided that the members of a county court might appoint commissioners who would be free to organize school districts in any manner which seemed to them best. Other laws dealing with this same problem were later enacted. The result was confusion and an almost endless variety of practices in the various counties. In most of the counties the justices' districts remained the school districts until the county unit plan was finally enacted into law. But in a number of the counties smaller units were adopted, sometimes a part of a justice's district or a part of two or more such districts, sometimes the small area served by a single school.

The trend toward the adoption of the county as the unit for local school administration definitely began in 1899 with the passage of the first high school law, which vested control of such high schools as might be established by the county courts in county high school boards.⁵ In 1907 an act was passed⁶ embodying

¹Acts of 1817, chap. 124; Acts of 1821, chap. 67; Acts of 1832, chap. 41.

²Acts of 1829, chap. 107; Acts of 1831, chap. 16.

³Acts of 1838, chap. 147.

⁴Acts of 1839-40, chap. 38.

⁵Acts of 1899, chap. 279.

⁶Acts of 1907, chap. 236.

an interesting form of transition from the old district control system to the county control method. This law provided that each county should be divided into five districts; that a member of the county board should be elected from each of these districts; and that each district should choose a "district advisory board" composed of three members.

This created an unwieldy system, since each county had to deal with three kinds of boards: county high school boards, county boards, and district advisory boards. In 1923¹ a pure county unit system was adopted which was supposed to apply to every county in the state. The system of three boards was abolished. Provision was made for a county board consisting of seven members, each elected from the county at large, and each serving for a term of seven years, one going out of office each year.

Theoretically this is the law of the state today. In reality no sooner was it enacted than it began to be nullified in two ways: by obeying the letter of the law while disobeying its spirit; and by securing the passage of private acts.

The first method mentioned is the one used by a great many counties which are nominally operating under the law of 1923. The seven board members "at large" are simply elected by the county court from seven different sections of the county. These board members then unofficially lay off the county into seven districts, and each member assumes personally the administration of his district, hiring and discharging its teachers, supervising its schools, and so on.

The other method is just as simple: the member of the state legislature from a given county secures the passage of an act applicable only to his county which changes the form of the local school administration. Since 1925 many private acts have been passed changing the provisions of the general school law in various particulars for the convenience of specific counties. For the purpose of the point in hand, the following illustrations will suffice:

Acts of 1927, Chapter 243. Marion County. The county board of education shall consist of seven members, one from each civil district, elected for a term of two years by popular vote.

Acts of 1927, Chapter 648. Perry County. There shall be a county elementary school board and district school directors.

Acts of 1929, Chapter 671. Hickman County. There shall be seven school districts and a board of school commissioners consisting of one member from each district.

¹Acts of 1923, chap. 79.

Acts of 1931, Chapter 59. Benton County. The county shall be divided into seven public school districts and one member of the county board of education shall be elected by popular vote from each district.

Acts of 1933, Chapter 136. Overton County. The county shall be divided into five educational zones. The county board shall consist of five members, one from each zone, elected for a term of two years by popular vote.

The influence which postponed the adoption of the county as the unit for school administration until 1923, and which after 1923 undermined the system until there were almost as many plans of administration as there were counties, can be readily identified. It was the effort of local politicians to make school administrative jobs a part of their political machines. Hence the tendency to divide the county so that each board member exercises authority as an individual rather than as a member of the board. Hence the plan by which, according to unimpeachable evidence, one man assumes control of the schools of his part of the county, employs and discharges their teachers, and in some cases even demands as the price of appointment either political vassalage or an actual cash bribe. Hence the political pressure on the county superintendent which reduces him to a mere figure-head unless he proves to be a person of outstanding ability.

The issue in the struggle today as in the struggle in the past is the issue between administration by petty local politicians and administration by trained educators.

Independent Districts

Tennessee early adopted the idea that towns and cities which wished to do so might organize their own school systems and operate them independently. Many independent districts were authorized by the legislature before the Civil War. Respect for the rights of independent districts has been expressed in various laws.

At the present time teachers in independent districts in cities of over 7,500 population are not required by law to hold certificates issued by the state. However the tendency now is for school boards in such exempted districts to require that teachers hold state certificates.

The present tendency is definitely away from independent districts and toward unified county systems, as is shown by the fact that the number of counties with unified systems in 1924 was thirty; in 1928, thirty-seven; and in 1932, forty.

The County Court

In Tennessee the county court, or magistrates' court as it is also called, bears much the same relation to county government that the legislature does to the state government, or that a city council does to a municipal government.

In school matters the county court has always played an important role, as the history of school legislation in the state abundantly proves. Even today when each county has a county school board, the magistrates' court is almost all powerful in school matters. The reason for this is that it has three all-important prerogatives: the election of the members of the county board of education, the election of the county superintendent of schools, and control of all county finances.

Although Sims, in his study of county government in Tennessee, presents eloquent proof of the inefficiency of the typical county court in the state,¹ he does not prove that this venerable institution is necessarily an ineffective agency of government. If the highest type of citizens should be elected to membership in the court, possibly all valid criticism would be obviated.

But perhaps all students of the problem agree that the present plan of divided responsibility in county school administration is not in the interest of sound public policy. There are two possible solutions for the problem. One plan would free the schools entirely from all administrative control by the county court. Another and bolder plan, which has found support in a recent publication,² would abolish the county school board and vest its legitimate functions in the regular agencies of county government.

The County Superintendent

The office of county superintendent was first created in Tennessee by the law of 1866-67. It was abolished by an act of 1869-70, only to be restored by another act of 1870-71, although under the latter the election of a superintendent was made optional with the county board of education.

¹Op. cit.

²C.H. Judd, Education and Social Progress, p. 145.
New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1934.

Both these early laws provided that the superintendent should be elected by a convention of the school directors meeting as a county board of education. The law of 1873, however, made the county court the body to elect the superintendent, and this has been the general law of the state to the present time.

Attention has already been called to the inadequacy of the plan of divided authority which provides for election of the teachers by the county board of education and election of the superintendent by the county court. The plan of having the superintendent elected by the board rather than by the court has been adopted recently in several private acts. Two such acts were passed in 1927, applying to Henry county¹ and Campbell county,² and at least two were passed in 1929, applying to Monroe county³ and Lake county.⁴

The Constitution of Tennessee, however, provides that "no county office created by the legislature shall be filled otherwise than by the people or the county court."⁵ The county superintendency is clearly such an office and has been so declared in opinions given by the Attorney General.⁶

Obviously the desirable solution is a constitutional amendment permitting the superintendent to be elected by the county board, if this is the plan which the state wishes to adopt. Unfortunately, however, it is virtually impossible to amend the constitution, as is shown by the fact that it has never been amended in the sixty-five years since it became the basic law of the state, although amendments have been proposed and vigorously sponsored.

Administration of the Local Unit

Democracy was never applied in politics, but it was applied in things of the intellect. The uncultured frontier accepted political leadership, but repudiated intellectual leadership and made one man's opinion as good as that of any other. Our civilization has been coarsened and cheapened as a result.⁷

¹Acts of 1927, chap. 566.

²Acts of 1927, chap. 323.

³Acts of 1929, chap. 548.

⁴Acts of 1929, chap. 789.

⁵Article XI, sec. 17.

⁶Opinions given May 14, 1929, and October 14, 1929.

⁷T.P. Abernethy, From Frontier to Plantation in Tennessee, p. 363. Chapel Hill, North Carolina: University of North Carolina Press, 1932.

People seem to feel, in effect, that to defer to political leadership merely recognizes that convenience necessitates that some lead and others follow, but that to defer to intellectual leadership implies that the leader is superior in knowledge and wisdom. This feeling seemingly has a tendency to cause people to distrust and dislike the expert.

This philosophy is well illustrated in the history of local school administration in Tennessee. For example, the first general school law of 1838 declared that "any voter is eligible to be district commissioner," though it left practically all problems of school administration in the hands of the commissioners.

The general school law of 1873 provided for the appointment of a county superintendent in each county who "shall be a person of literary and scientific attainments, and, when practicable, of skill and experience in the art of teaching." On the other hand, it stated that "any person shall be eligible to the office of director who is a resident of the district." Yet it made the functions of the superintendent advisory and clerical rather than administrative. It assigned him only one important duty, that of examining and certifying teachers. All the other functions which educators now believe can be capably performed only by trained experts in the field of school administration it left to the district directors.

Under the general law of 1925, in force today except where abrogated in some respects by private acts, somewhat more extensive duties are assigned to the superintendent. But his duties are still largely clerical, inspectional and advisory. The county board, on the other hand, has very broad administrative authority, for it is empowered to elect principals, supervisors, teachers, attendance officers, clerical assistants, and other employees and dismiss them when necessary; manage and control all county schools; purchase all supplies, furniture, fixtures, and materials of every kind; visit the schools whenever, in the judgment of the board, such visits are necessary, and suspend or dismiss pupils.

Careful examination of the law now in effect reveals the surprising fact that the county superintendent may be anything from the undisputed educational leader of his county to a mere figurehead and still stay within its terms. In fact, there is wide variation in the prestige of the office in the different counties of the state at present. The law says, for example, that the superintendent must recommend employees, but it does not say that the board can elect only those whom he recommends. It says that he is to assign teachers, but it does not say whether the board must approve his assignment unless it can give a valid reason for not doing so. The scope and possibilities of the county

superintendency at present depend entirely on the public conscience, the ideals of the board members, and on the ability of the superintendent himself.

The State as a Unit for School Administration

The general trend in school administration in Tennessee has been from small group control to large group control. It has already been noted that the local district was at first almost supreme, and that, after a period during which local districts retained "advisory boards," control was eventually vested in the county. There is unmistakable evidence of a tendency to shift functions of school administration to the state as the unit of control.

The history of the prerogative of selecting textbooks for the public schools furnishes an interesting illustration of this trend. This prerogative was, until the close of the nineteenth century, exclusively exercised by the local district school directors. In the report for the year 1874 and again in the report for 1887, the state superintendent approved the existing arrangement in emphatic terms.¹ But in 1899, the legislature passed a bill² vesting in a textbook commission authority to select textbooks for the entire state. Perhaps it should be stated that of late a counter tendency in this regard has developed, namely, for the textbook commission to make multiple adoptions, from which the local school system is privileged to make its own selections.

The certification of teachers furnishes another example of the shifting of authority from the local district to the county, and from the county to the state. This subject will be discussed in greater detail in a later chapter.

Similarly, the authority to levy school taxes has gradually shifted from the district to the county and from the county to the state. In support of this trend the statement should be made that many students of education in the state today believe that such authority should be vested in the state altogether.

A subject which has been much discussed of late relates to the plan of having all teachers' salaries, up to a certain minimum amount, paid directly by the state. This plan was vigorously sponsored by the retired Commissioner of Education, Mr. P.L. Harned, whose term of office expired in January, 1933.

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1874, p. 16. Report of the State Superintendent, 1887, p. 39.

²Acts of 1899, chap. 205.

It is not possible to determine as yet just how far this trend from small group control to large group control will eventually be carried. It is interesting to note, however, that the National Education Association is sponsoring a plan for greater federal aid to education.

The Chief State School Officer

The legislature of Tennessee in 1836 provided for the election of a "Superintendent of Public Instruction by joint vote of both branches of the General Assembly."¹ Tennessee thus became one of the first states in the Union to establish the office of state superintendent. However, the duties assigned the superintendent were almost exclusively fiscal: he was charged with looking after the school lands and accumulated school funds.

The law provided that he should make an annual report to the legislature, in which he should include suggestions for the improvement of the public schools. In compliance with this provision of the act, the first superintendent, Robert H. McEwen, issued in 1839 the first report of a state superintendent in the history of Tennessee.

Agitation over a scandal about the alleged misuse of public funds in which Superintendent McEwen became involved led, in 1844, to the passage of a law² abolishing the office of Superintendent of Public Instruction and transferring his duties to the Secretary of State.

In 1867 the office was again created.³ The superintendent was to be elected by direct vote of the people for a term of two years. Mention has already been made in another section of this chapter of the outstanding work of General John H. Eaton, who was the only superintendent elected to serve under the law of 1867.

The office was abolished again in 1870,⁴ only to be immediately restored in 1871.⁵ "For purposes of economy" however, the Treasurer of the State was given the office in addition to his ordinary duties.

¹Acts of 1836, chap. 23.

²Acts of 1843-44, chap. 77.

³Acts of 1866-67, chap. 27.

⁴Acts of 1869-70, chap. 33.

⁵Acts of 1870-71. 3d sess., chap. 107.

The state superintendency was restored as an independent office by the general school law of 1873, which provided that it should be filled by the appointment of the governor and the confirmation of the senate, and that the appointee should serve two years. This law remained unchanged until 1915, when an act was passed¹ which provided that the state superintendent should be elected by the State Board of Education.

By the Reorganization Bill of 1923² the title of the chief school officer was changed to Commissioner of Education. The commissioner was made a member of the governor's cabinet and given charge of the newly created State Department of Education. The term of office remained two years; the method of selection by appointment of the governor, which had been dropped in 1915, was restored, but without provision for confirmation by the senate. Many students of education in the state believe that this change in the method of selection from election by the state board to appointment by the governor was unwise, because they feel that the present plan tends to make the office a political one. However, the plan of appointment by the governor is not without support in informed circles.³ It is possible that no objectionable political domination of the commissioner will result from the present system if only able men who are devoted to public service are elected governor. At present the office of commissioner is vested with wide powers and much prestige.

The State Department of Education

There really existed no such legal entity as a State Department of Education in Tennessee before 1923. But as early as 1905 the state superintendent in his report referred to his staff consisting of himself and two office assistants as a "state department of education." This title was not used again until the report for 1913-14; but by this time a significant expansion had already taken place, and seven members of the "department" were listed. By the time of the report for 1919-20 the number had increased to eight; and in the report for 1921-22 a "department" was listed consisting of eighteen members. These figures give eloquent testimony to the rapid expansion of the functions of the office

¹Acts of 1915, chap. 116.

²Acts of 1923, chap. 7.

³Judd, op. cit., p. 149.

of state superintendent and show that what was originally merely a small clerical staff became a complex administrative organization, which required only legal recognition as such to transform it into a department of government.

This recognition came in 1923. In that year, under the leadership of Governor Austin Peay, a sweeping reorganization of the state government was effected, and numerous offices, bureaus, and commissions were abolished or consolidated.¹ The executive branch of the government was divided into eight departments and one of these was the department of education, headed by the commissioner of education, a state cabinet member. The department was in turn divided into divisions, there being a division of high schools, a division of elementary schools, a division of certification, and others.

The State Board of Education

The state board of education first appeared in an embryonic form in the law of 1836² which created the office of superintendent of public instruction. The provision was as follows:

The Treasurer of the State, the Comptroller of the Treasury, and an executive officer, to be called the Superintendent of Public Instruction, . . . shall be and they are hereby created and constituted a body politic and corporate, by the name and style of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools for the State of Tennessee, who shall hold and possess property of all kinds for the use of common schools.

It will be noted that the board was wholly ex-officio in its composition and that its only function was to "hold and possess" school property. The law by which the office of superintendent was abolished in 1844³ destroyed this board and transferred its duties, with those of the superintendent, to the secretary of state.

Thirty years later, after the Civil War, the first real board of education was created in Tennessee, under circumstances of some historical significance. The same law⁴ which provided for the establishment of "a normal school or schools" also created a board of education for the express purpose of effecting that establishment. The composition of the board was stated in the

¹Acts of 1923, chap. 7.

²Acts of 1836, chap. 23.

³Acts of 1843-44, chap. 77.

⁴Acts of 1875, chap. 90.

following language in section 13:

That the governor of the state shall appoint a State Board of Education, to consist of six members, two of whom shall be appointed for six years, two for four years, and two for two years, and, after the expiration of their first terms of office, their successors shall be appointed for six years; the governor of the State shall be ex-officio a member and President of said Board.

Careful reading of the law of 1875 reveals the fact that the newly formed board of education was given only one function, to establish and administer the new "normal school or schools" authorized by the law. Thus, from the first, there existed the intimate connection between the state board and state teacher training institutions which has persisted until the present time.

The only suggestion in this law of possible functions for the state board other than establishing and administering normal schools is contained in the following statement from section 14:

That it shall be the duty of said Board of Education to report through the Superintendent to the regular meeting of the General Assembly, the operations of the Board, the condition and progress of the Normal Schools, with such suggestions as they may deem advisable for the improvement of Normal and Public Schools.

For many years after its establishment the state board of education performed virtually no functions at all. The only normal school established was the Peabody Normal College, as will be explained later, and it was under the joint control of three boards: the state board of education, the board of trustees of the University of Nashville, and the Peabody Board.

By an act first passed in 1905¹ and re-passed in 1907,² the state relinquished its claims on Peabody College to the Peabody Board, thus depriving the state board of education of the only real function it had ever had.

The General Education Bill of 1909,³ however, bestowed so many new and vastly extended powers on the board that it became the most important governmental agency in controlling Tennessee public education.

The number of appointive members on the board was changed in 1915⁴ from six to nine, three to be appointed for each of the

¹Acts of 1905, chap. 211.

²Acts of 1907, chap. 19.

³Acts of 1909, chap. 24.

⁴Acts of 1915, chap. 116.

three grand divisions of the state. Two years later this plan was reenacted¹ with the qualifying clause, "that the minority party shall be represented by at least three members on said board." The general school law of 1925 made no change in the number, term, or manner of selection of board members. It did however provide for a further extension of the powers of the board.

The legal status of the board has remained unchanged since 1925. Today it is an organization of considerable authority, bearing roughly the same relation to the state department of education as the legislative branch of government bears to the executive.

The Board of Trustees of the University of Tennessee

Blount College, the institution which became the present University of Tennessee, was established by an act of the Territorial Assembly in 1794.² This act provided for a self-perpetuating board of trustees for Blount College, specifying that the trustees shall have the power

. . . . to fill up any vacancies which may happen in the board through death, resignation, or removal of members, by electing others in their room.

The legal basis for considering Blount College, although it was in no sense a public institution, the forerunner of the state university is the fact that in 1807 all its assets were turned over to East Tennessee College when the latter institution was established to receive the proceeds of the land grant provided by the congressional act of 1806 (see foregoing discussion).³ By the act which created East Tennessee College⁴ the following provision was made in regard to its board of trustees:

Upon the death, removal out of the county in which he resides, or resignation of any of the said trustees, the vacancy thereby occasioned shall be supplied by the remaining trustees appointing some other person, a resident of the same county in which the one deceased, resigned, or removed, resided; which appointment shall remain until the expiration of the next session of the General Assembly shall supply such vacancy.

¹Acts of 1917, chap. 51.

²Acts of 1794, chap. 13.

³Acts of 1807, chaps. 64 and 78.

⁴Acts of 1807, chap. 64.

Although the act speaks of the general assembly supplying the vacancy, the result in practice was that the legislature merely confirmed the appointment previously made by the board. There is no record of any appointment having been made which did not originate with the board, nor is there any evidence that the restriction concerning the county of residence was observed.

It is clear that the institution was transformed from a private one with a legally self-perpetuating board to a quasi-public one with a board self-perpetuating in fact if not in law. It remained quasi-public until it was adopted as the state university in 1909.

Membership on the board of trustees of East Tennessee College was for life. No limit was set to the possible number of members. The original law of 1807¹ named thirty trustees. From time to time thereafter the legislature added new members, for example, nine in 1821,² six in 1865.³ The earliest catalogue of the institution, issued in 1838, lists a board of twenty-six members; two years later twenty-eight members are listed.⁴ Possibly not all the appointments made by the board were confirmed by the legislature - at least, a search fails to reveal any record of confirmation in some cases.

In 1840⁵ the name of the institution was changed to East Tennessee University, and in 1879⁶ to the University of Tennessee. No changes, however, were made in the legal status of the institution, nor in the manner of selecting the members of the board of trustees.

Finally, by the general education bill of 1909,⁷ the University of Tennessee was legally recognized as the state university. In the same year⁸ the membership and manner of selection of the board were radically changed. The new plan was as follows:

¹Acts of 1807, chap. 78.

²Acts of 1821, chap. 219.

³Resolution No. 39.

⁴Catalogue, 1840.

⁵Moses White, Early History of the University of Tennessee, p. 34. Published by order of the Board of Trustees, 1879.

⁶Acts of 1879, chap. 75.

⁷Acts of 1909, chap. 264.

⁸Acts of 1909, chap. 48.

The board shall consist of two members to be appointed from the City of Knoxville, and one member to be appointed from each congressional district in the state, making twelve members as the state is now apportioned, and the Governor, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Commissioner of Agriculture, and the President of the University, who shall be ex-officio members of said Board of Trustees.

It was further specified that members should be appointed by the governor with confirmation by the senate, that at least one-third of the members should be alumni of the university, and that at least one-third should be members of the chief minority political party.

In 1915¹ this act was amended so as to provide for two members from the city of Memphis. This was because the university's medical college is located in that city. As thus amended, the act has remained unchanged until the present time. The board lost one member, however, when Tennessee was reduced from ten congressional districts to nine by the reapportionment made by Congress after the 1930 census.

Shall There Be A Single Board?

There is considerable discussion in Tennessee at the present time growing out of the question as to whether there shall be a single board which exercises control over all state supported educational institutions. The province of the present state board includes all state educational institutions except the state university. Shall the Board of Trustees of the University of Tennessee be abolished and its functions given over to the State Board of Education?

Questions concerning this vital problem of state school administration cannot be answered unequivocally at present. Educational leaders holding a variety of positions in different parts of the state have been found to have widely divergent views. One group favors divesting the present board of all of its control of education on the collegiate level. Of this group some favor the establishment of a separate State Board of Higher Education, while others prefer the policy of letting each institution of college rank have its own individual board. The president of one state institution favors the latter plan, because he believes that the experience of other states shows that state institutions receive larger appropriations when each has its own board. Another group favors the present plan, considering that the uniqueness of the state university is valuable and should be maintained by keeping it under separate control. A large and perhaps growing group is

¹ Acts of 1915, chap. 26.

taking a third view and recommending a single board for all public education in the state, believing that only in that way can a really unified state program of education be conceived and carried out.

Unfortunately the existing laws of other states do not offer a direct solution to this problem since the systems established in the different states vary so widely. Tables I and II, based on a study of the latest codes and session laws of all the states made in the winter of 1933-34, show the situation as it exists in the various states of the Union at present.

TABLE I
METHODS EMPLOYED BY THE SEVERAL STATES IN
CONTROLLING NORMAL SCHOOLS AND
TEACHERS COLLEGES

Method Used	States Employing Each	
	Number	Per Cent
Board of the State University	3	6.3
State Board of Higher Education	2	4.2
State Board of Education	22	45.8
Board of Normal Schools or similar boards	9	18.8
Each teachers' institution under a board of its own	7	14.6
No separate institutions for teachers are operated by the state	5	10.4

TABLE II
METHODS EMPLOYED BY THE SEVERAL STATES IN
CONTROLLING THE STATE UNIVERSITY

Method Used	States Employing Each	
	Number	Per Cent
A separate board of trustees or regents	40	83.3
State Board of Higher Education	2	4.2
State Board of Education	6	12.5

The additional fact should be stated that those students of educational administration in the state who feel that the unique function of the state university can be best maintained by vesting control of the institution in its present separate board, and who are nevertheless in sympathy with the movement to unify public education, believe that all desirable coordination of effort can be attained through a joint committee appointed from the membership of the two existent boards. It is possible that such a joint committee could function effectively in working out a unified program of public education in the state.

PART II

THE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING AS A PROFESSION IN TENNESSEE

CHAPTER III

THE PROFESSION OF TEACHING

The development of teaching as a profession in Tennessee is studied in considerable detail in Part II in order to provide a background for understanding and appreciating the problems encountered at the present time in teacher education. The study is organized under four general topics: first, the personnel who have constituted the profession of teaching; second, the requirements for teacher certification which the state has formulated to insure that the public schools should be capably taught; third, the training provided for teachers in service; and fourth, the preparation of teachers in educational institutions.

This chapter presents information concerning the personnel who have constituted the profession of teaching in the state - the total number of teachers employed, the percentage of men and women teachers, teacher qualifications, the number of inexperienced teachers employed, and the salary and length of school term. The remaining topics relating to the development of teaching as a profession are discussed in Chapters IV to VI inclusive.

Before the Civil War

In 1826 Philip Lindsley, then President of Cumberland College at Nashville, delivered a notable commencement address before the graduates of his college, in which he made the following statement about the profession of teaching:

Employ teachers qualified to govern and instruct children in the best possible manner. Pay them according to their merit. Pay any sum necessary to command the services of the best and most accomplished teachers. Parsimony in this particular is not only impolitic; it is mean, it is absurd, it is ruinous. Better have no teachers than to have incompetent, immoral, lazy, passionate or indiscreet ones, however cheaply they may be procured. Their influence will not be merely negative; it will be positive and most powerful. I have often looked with horror upon the kind of common schools and teachers to which thousands of children, during several of their best years, are cruelly and wantonly subjected in the older states. But it is, or was, the fashion in many places to hire a block-head or vagabond because he would teach school for a child for a dollar and twenty-five cents per quarter! Now if there be anything for which a parent ought to feel disposed to pay liberally it is for the faithful instruction of his children.

Compared with this every other interest vanishes like chaff before the wind - it is less than nothing.

And yet, unless the world has suddenly grown much wiser, there is no service so grudgingly or pitifully rewarded. The consequence is what might have been expected. Every man of cleverness and ambition will turn his back with scorn upon the country school. He will become a lawyer, a physician, a merchant, a mechanic, a farmer, or a farmer's overseer, in preference. Until school keeping be made an honorable and lucrative profession suitable school teachers will never be forthcoming in this free country.¹

How different the situation in Tennessee - and in other states - might be today if these statements had represented the sentiments of the average citizen in 1826 instead of merely those of an exceptionally gifted scholar and educator. They did not, however, and they do not today. The words spoken by Dr. Lindsley more than a hundred years ago are almost as timely now as they were then.

Similar concern as to the status of teaching and teachers in Tennessee was expressed by the first state superintendent of public instruction, Robert H. McEwen, in his first report (1839):

In section 17 of the School Act it is required that a school be kept at least three months by a "qualified" teacher in order to entitle a district to its share of the public fund; but the act nowhere specifies what his qualifications shall be or who are to judge concerning them. It is respectfully suggested that this omission in the act be supplied by giving to the commissioners the power and making it their duty to examine teachers and give certificates to such as shall be found to possess proper moral and intellectual qualifications. Good teachers, it will readily be conceded, are essential to the success of any school; no practical means, therefore, of securing them should be neglected.²

McEwen also quotes the following from an early report of Horace Mann:

Although it is not always in the power of school committees to introduce into the schools devoted and accomplished teachers; yet it is in their power and a solemn part of their duty not to inflict upon the children of a whole district the calamity of an ignorant, ill tempered, and profane teacher. It is not trivial arbitrament to decide whether a school shall be a blessing or a nuisance, and therefore the question of a teacher's fitness is not to be guessed at, but solemnly pondered.

¹North American Review, January, 1827, pp. 219-224.

²"Superintendent's Report," House Journal, 1839-40, p. 780.

The fact that the teaching profession had so few attractions for young men of ability led to ingenious planning in an attempt to induce able youths of limited means to commit themselves in advance to teaching, at least for a while. In 1837 a joint committee of both houses of the legislature, which urged the establishment of county academies to be supported partly from interest on the school funds and partly from tuition fees, made the following recommendation:

This important condition, also, should accompany the benefaction of the state to the academy: that such youths of both sexes as were unable to pay for their tuition should receive its benefits free of charge, with the tacit understanding, however, that they should, after leaving it walls, devote a certain portion of their time to the business of common school teaching, receiving the same salaries as might be given to other teachers.¹

The same plan was adopted by East Tennessee University. The catalogue of that institution for 1844 contains the following announcement:

With a view to encourage young men to qualify themselves for the business of teaching and to secure their services for a specified time in the honorable and laudable occupation of instructing the youth of our country, the trustees have resolved to remit the tuition of two young men from each county in East Tennessee on the following conditions: (the applicant) must sign a written obligation that when he shall have completed his course of study he will devote the succeeding three years to teaching school in East Tennessee.

An announcement similar to the above appeared in practically every subsequent catalogue issued before the Civil War. Enrollments, however, continued to be uniformly small, and there is no reason to believe that any considerable number of impoverished students availed themselves of this opportunity.

An interesting survival of this plan is to be found in the following provision relating to normal schools written into the law of 1909 and still in force today:

Nor shall any person be admitted to either of the normal schools for white people who does not first sign a pledge to teach in the public or private schools of the state of Tennessee within the next six years after leaving the school, at least as long as he or she has attended such school.²

¹Report to the Legislature of Tennessee of the Joint Committee of Both Houses on the Subject of a System of Education, Embracing Common Schools, Academies, and Colleges, House Journal, 1837-38, p. 792.

²Acts of 1909, chap. 264.

Such forced bargains give eloquent proof of the niggardliness of the state in remunerating its public school teachers. Pledges of the kind have never been found necessary in such vocations as law or medicine, where the financial reward and other inducements have been themselves adequate to attract the youth of talent.

No statistics are available which reveal the exact amount of the salaries paid school teachers in Tennessee before the Civil War. It is known, however, that the state distributed yearly for school support never more than sixty cents per pupil and sometimes not more than forty cents. This, of course, yielded a very small annual appropriation for the average rural school, perhaps fifteen to twenty-five dollars for the entire year. It is known also that the state fund was sufficient to keep the school open only for a month or two. An energetic teacher might be able to conduct a tuition school for a few weeks after the free school closed; then he would farm or do whatever work was available for the rest of the year. Probably there were very few teachers in Tennessee before the Civil War who earned their entire living by teaching.

In those days a common practice among young men was to use teaching as a "stepping stone" to some other profession. This is shown by the fact that a large percentage of the men of the period, and for many years afterward, who attained prominence in various pursuits had taught school in their youth. It is a cause for regret that as a rule the abler instructors went on to other work; the mediocre teachers were mainly the ones who never progressed beyond the "stepping stone" of the profession. Many young men who later attained eminence in fields in which the rewards were more substantial were remembered by their former pupils as having been superior teachers for the short time during which they engaged in teaching. There can be no doubt that the cultural development of America was tragically retarded because an unwise public refused to offer rewards sufficiently generous to induce youths of talent and aptitude to enter teaching as a lifetime profession.

Since the Civil War

The earliest statistics which were published in Tennessee concerning the teaching personnel in the public schools appeared in the first report of the state superintendent published after the law of 1873 was put into effect.¹ Since that time, similar

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1874.

statistics have appeared in each published report. Difficulties are encountered, however, in attempting to make a comparative study of these data. For one thing, state superintendents found it impossible to obtain accurate reports from county superintendents; frequently they found it impossible to obtain any reports at all. Another difficulty arises from the fact that state superintendents followed various plans in presenting their official statements.

The number of teachers employed.- The number of teachers employed in Tennessee public schools from 1873-74 to 1932-33, according to available reports, appears in Table III and is shown graphically in Figure 1. Certain interesting facts are revealed

TABLE III

NUMBER OF TEACHERS EMPLOYED IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN
TENNESSEE, 1873-1933

Year	Number Teachers	Year	Number Teachers
1873-74	5,551	1908-09	10,450
1874-75	4,210	1909-10	10,286
1875-76	4,210	1910-11	10,918
1876-77	5,001	1911-12	11,086
1879-80	5,954	1912-13	11,234
1882-83	6,733	1913-14	12,086
1883-84	6,928	1914-15	12,181
1884-85	7,214	1915-16	12,297
1885-86	7,307	1916-17	12,963
1887-88	7,439	1917-18	12,947
1888-89	7,598	1918-19	13,107
1889-90	7,911	1919-20	13,277
1890-91	8,250	1920-21	13,982
1891-92	8,642	1921-22	15,167
1892-93	8,609	1922-23	15,351
1893-94	8,620	1923-24	15,695
1894-95	8,500	1924-25	16,208
1895-96	9,135	1925-26	16,691
1898-99	9,372	1926-27	17,009
1899-1900	9,195	1927-28	18,042
1900-01	9,484	1928-29	18,632
1901-02	9,689	1929-30	19,058
1902-03	9,732	1930-31	19,337
1903-04	9,613	1931-32	19,238
1906-07	9,929	1932-33	19,109
1907-08	10,005		

by these data. A decrease in the total number of teachers employed occurred, apparently, from the year 1873-74 to the year 1874-75. This is probably to be explained by the fact that

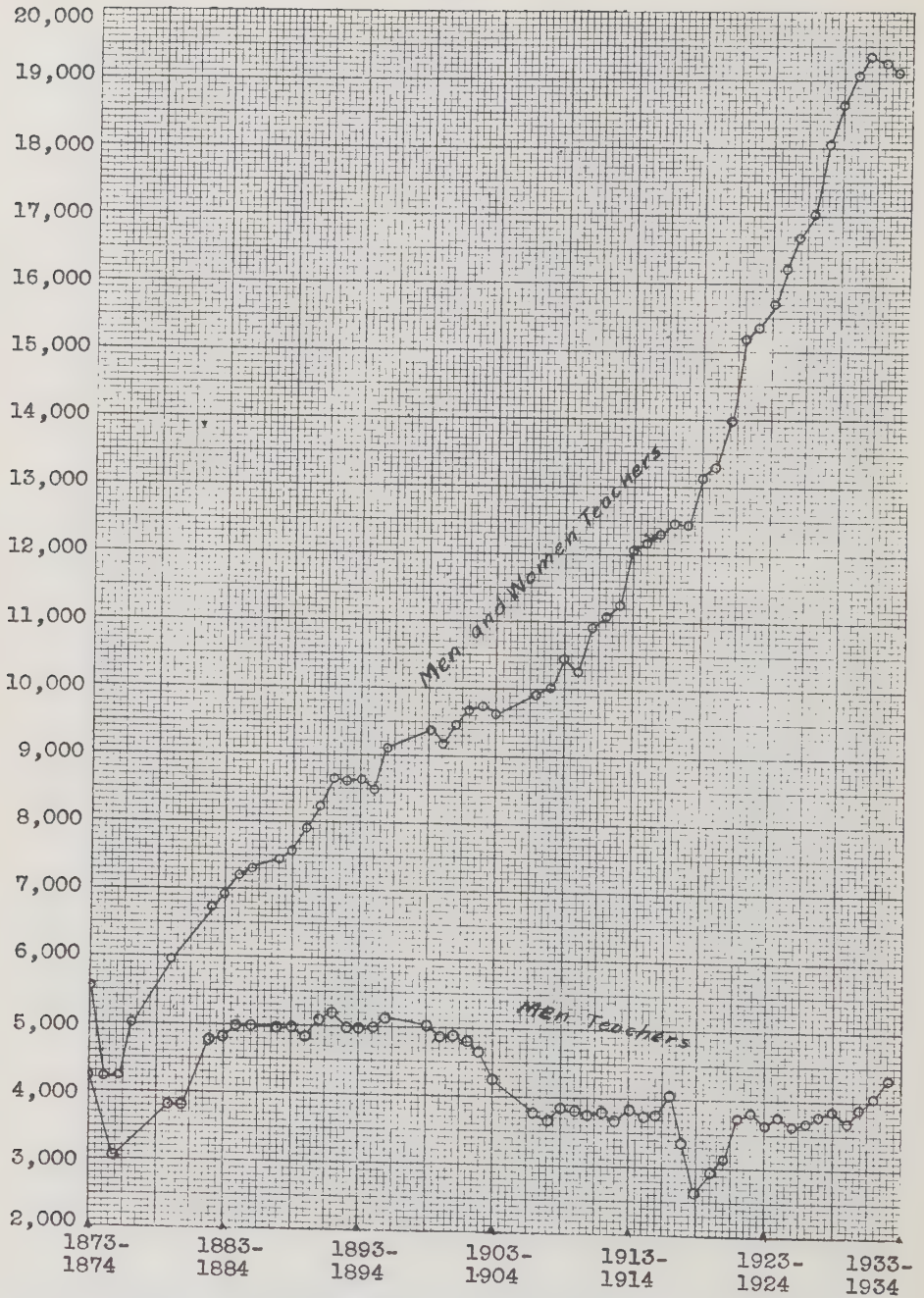


Fig. 1.- Total number of teachers and total number of men teachers employed, 1873-1933.

ambitious communities opened schools the first year the new law was in force, but failed to make adequate provision for financing them. As a result, the outlook the following year was so discouraging that these particular communities did not attempt to reopen their schools. Five years passed before the number of teachers employed in Tennessee was equal to the number employed in 1873-74.

There is shown also a rapid upward trend in the number of teachers employed in the decade, 1920-30. Finally, a decline appears in the number of teachers employed during the depression years, 1930 to 1933.

The available data concerning the number of teachers employed in high schools appear in Table IV, and are presented in graphic form in Figure 2. It will be noted that the total number of teachers employed more than doubled during the decade, 1920-1930. A sharp decline in the number of teachers employed occurred during the depression years, 1930 to 1933.

TABLE IV
NUMBER OF HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS EMPLOYED
IN TENNESSEE, 1916-1933

Year	County	City	Total
1916-17	740	343	1,083
1917-18	907	489	1,396
1918-19	961	500	1,461
1919-20	1,010	605	1,615
1920-21	1,146	600	1,746
1921-22	1,491	432	1,923
1922-23	1,612	-	--
1923-24	1,677	-	--
1924-25	1,795	-	--
1925-26	1,917	-	--
1926-27	2,166	-	--
1927-28	2,210	764	2,974
1928-29	2,356	607	2,963
1929-30	2,598	727	3,325
1930-31	3,163	673	3,836
1931-32	2,655	699	3,354
1932-33	2,629	529	3,158

It is significant that this decrease in the number of high school teachers employed was accompanied by an increase in the number of pupils and in the average daily high school attendance. The attendance figures are as follows:

1930-31 64,693
1931-32 67,300
1932-33 70,358

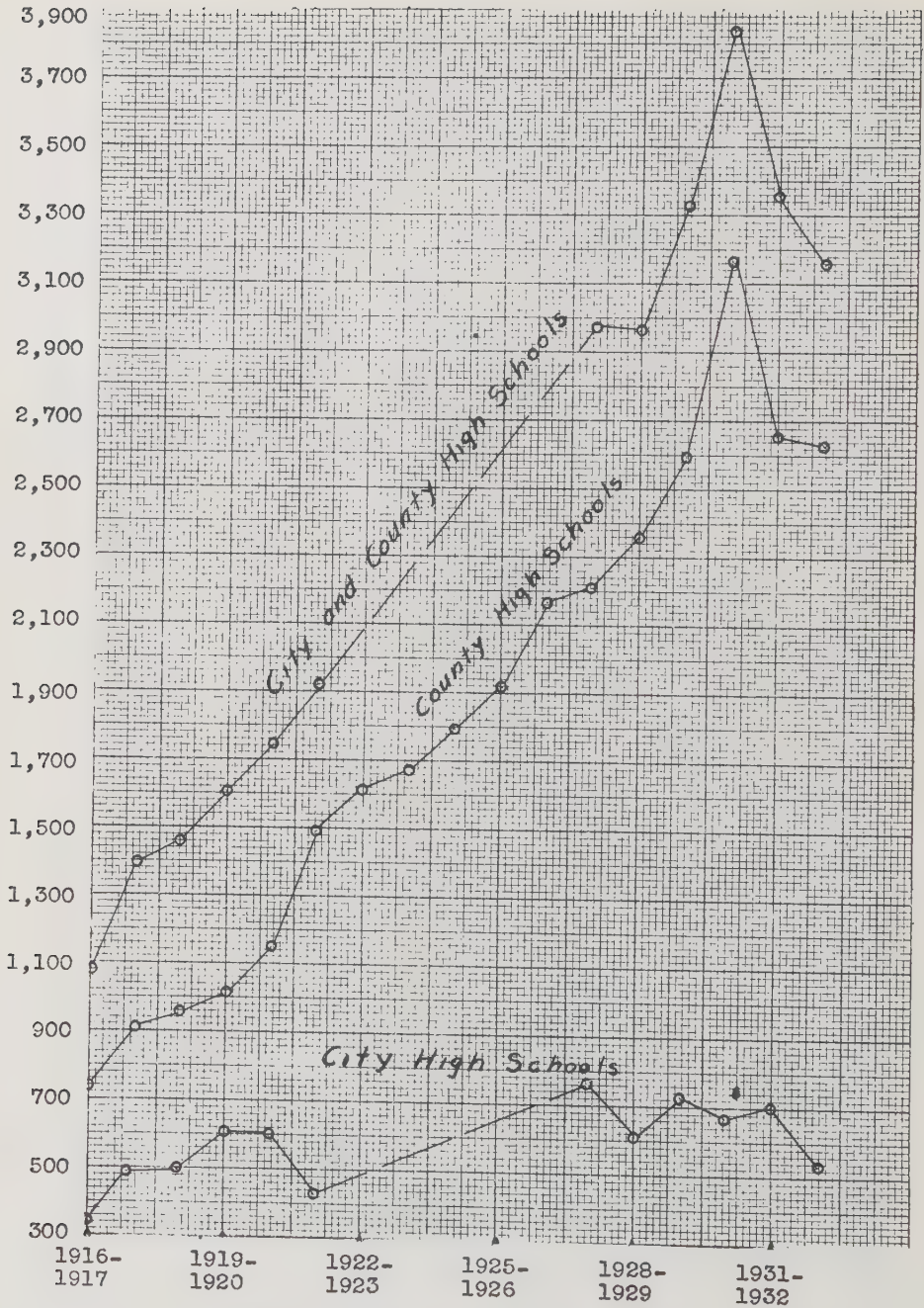


Fig. 2.- Number of high school teachers employed, 1916-1933.

The significance of these figures is obvious. There is a tendency to employ fewer teachers to instruct more pupils. Probably this change has been brought about in two ways, by discontinuing course offerings and by increasing the size of classes.

Figure 2 shows that while the total number of high school teachers employed has increased rapidly on the whole, the number of teachers employed in city high schools has not increased correspondingly. This situation is to be explained by the fact that there is a definite tendency, which was mentioned in Chapter II (page 28), to discontinue independent city systems and organize unified county systems of schools.

The number of men and women teachers employed.- One of the significant developments in the teaching profession since the Civil War is the vast increase in the number of women teachers. Before the war the typical public school teacher was a man. To-day the typical public school teacher is a woman.

The story of the feminization of the profession, as revealed by available statistics, is presented in Table V. Figure 1, to which reference has already been made, shows the total number of men and women employed. As shown in the table, the total for men engaged in teaching decreased to its lowest point in the war year, 1918-19. By 1922-23 the total number of men employed had increased again to practically the same level which it had held for about fifteen years before the war period. There it remained until 1929-30. It is interesting to note that while the total number of teachers employed decreased in the early years of the 1930's, the number of men teachers steadily increased. These facts have only one interpretation. Men who prefer some occupation other than teaching resort to the comparative security of the classroom when they encounter distress in the work for which they have a preference.

Figure 3 shows the per cent of teachers who were men. The highest per cent recorded was 76.1 in 1873-74. The record low was 20.3 per cent in the war year 1918-19. After the war there was a rise to 25.8 per cent in 1922-23. With the prosperity of the latter 1920's there occurred another decline in the percentage of men employed as teachers, until only 20.4 per cent was recorded in the peak year of prosperity, 1929-30. As pointed out in the foregoing, however, there is a noticeable upturn in the curve during the depression years of the early 1930's.

The highest ratio of men teachers has been maintained in county high schools, as shown in Table VI and Figure 4. It will be noted that except for the war year 1918-19, when only 46.1 per cent was recorded, the level has remained almost fifty per cent. It is true that there was a decrease in the latter 1920's; but in

TABLE V

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF MEN AND WOMEN TEACHERS
EMPLOYED IN TENNESSEE, 1873-1933

Year	Men Teachers		Women Teachers	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
1873-74	4227	76.1	1324	23.9
1875-76	3083	73.2	1127	26.8
1879-80	3840	65.7	1535	34.3
1882-83	4793	71.3	1940	28.7
1883-84	4613	69.4	2115	30.6
1884-85	4999	69.4	2215	30.6
1885-86	4961	67.9	2346	32.1
1887-88	4966	66.8	2473	33.2
1888-89	4973	65.5	2725	34.5
1889-90	4827	61.4	3030	38.6
1890-91	5074	61.4	3184	38.6
1891-92	5176	60.1	3436	39.9
1892-93	4997	58.1	3612	41.9
1893-94	4994	57.9	3626	42.1
1894-95	4995	58.2	3595	41.8
1895-96	5121	56.2	4014	43.8
1898-99	5019	54.5	4194	45.5
1899-1900	4874	52.9	4163	47.1
1900-01	4896	51.6	4588	48.4
1901-02	4810	49.6	4879	50.4
1902-03	4652	47.7	5080	52.3
1903-04	4220	43.9	5393	56.1
1906-07	3773	38.0	6056	62.0
1907-08	3682	36.9	6300	63.1
1908-09	3841	36.6	6609	63.4
1909-10	3806	36.9	6480	63.1
1910-11	3749	34.4	7169	65.6
1911-12	3794	34.1	7292	65.9
1912-13	3681	34.0	7152	66.0
1913-14	3827	34.5	7259	65.5
1914-15	3731	30.6	9450	69.4
1915-16	3739	30.7	8458	69.3
1916-17	4035	31.1	8928	68.9
1917-18	3376	26.2	9571	73.8
1918-19	2660	20.3	10447	79.7
1919-20	2971	22.3	10306	77.7
1920-21	3124	22.3	10858	77.7
1921-22	3741	24.6	11426	75.4
1922-23	3817	25.8	10988	74.2
1923-24	3621	23.4	11857	76.6
1924-25	3753	24.8	11325	76.2
1925-26	3622	22.1	12753	77.9
1926-27	3666	21.8	13127	78.2
1927-28	3871	21.8	13803	78.2
1928-29	3791	22.7	12884	77.3
1929-30	3669	20.4	14296	79.6
1930-31	3901	20.7	14869	79.3
1931-32	4043	21.7	14513	78.3
1932-33	4308	23.2	14272	76.8

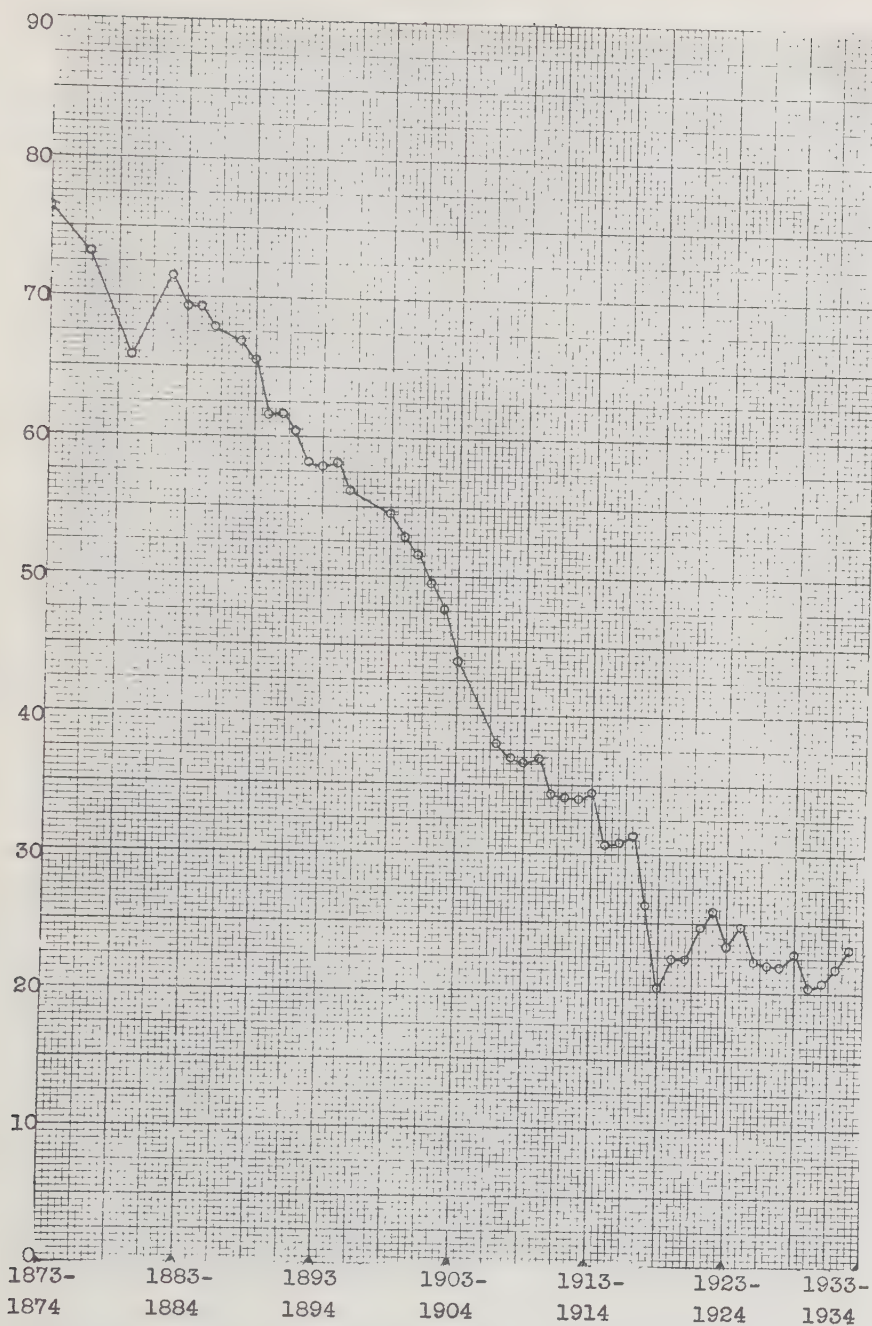


Fig. 3.- Per cent of public school teachers who were men, 1873-1933.

TABLE VI

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF MEN AND WOMEN TEACHERS EMPLOYED
IN COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS, 1916-33

Year	Men Teachers		Women Teachers		Total
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	
1916-17	388	52.5	352	47.5	740
1917-18	441	48.4	466	51.6	907
1918-19	400	41.6	561	58.4	961
1919-20	502	49.5	508	50.5	1010
1920-21	579	50.4	567	49.6	1146
1921-22	742	49.8	749	50.2	1491
1922-23	821	51.0	791	49.0	1612
1923-24	797	49.5	808	50.5	1605
1924-25	897	49.4	918	50.6	1815
1925-26	881	48.1	976	51.9	1857
1926-27	992	48.1	1071	51.9	2063
1927-28	1068	48.1	1150	51.9	2218
1928-29	1136	48.1	1220	51.9	2356
1929-30	1235	47.5	1363	52.5	2598
1930-31	1274	47.9	1384	52.1	2658
1931-32	1270	47.6	1402	52.4	2672
1932-33	1289	49.0	1340	51.0	2629

the last year recorded, 1932-33, there was a slight upturn. This indicates again that the depression was driving men into the teaching profession.

Comparison of Table VII and Figure 5 with other tables and figures in this section reveals that the lowest percentage of men teachers are employed in city elementary schools. The highest per cent was 21.3 in 1908-09. The lowest was 5.2 per cent in 1924-25. Again a slight upturn is noted for the depression years.

It is an interesting fact that rural districts have shown a greater reluctance than cities to employ women teachers. For instance, in 1887, as quoted in Chapter II, the superintendent of rural Bledsoe County reported: "The usual prejudice against female teachers is still kept up in this county." In the same report¹ data were found which show a corresponding unwillingness of rural counties to employ women teachers. For Davidson county, of which Nashville is the county seat, the figures are as follows: white male, 59; white female, 125; colored male, 34; female, 46; total male, 93; total female, 171. For Johnson County, in rural East Tennessee the figures are: white male, 35; white female, 0;

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1887, pp. 108, 109, 110.

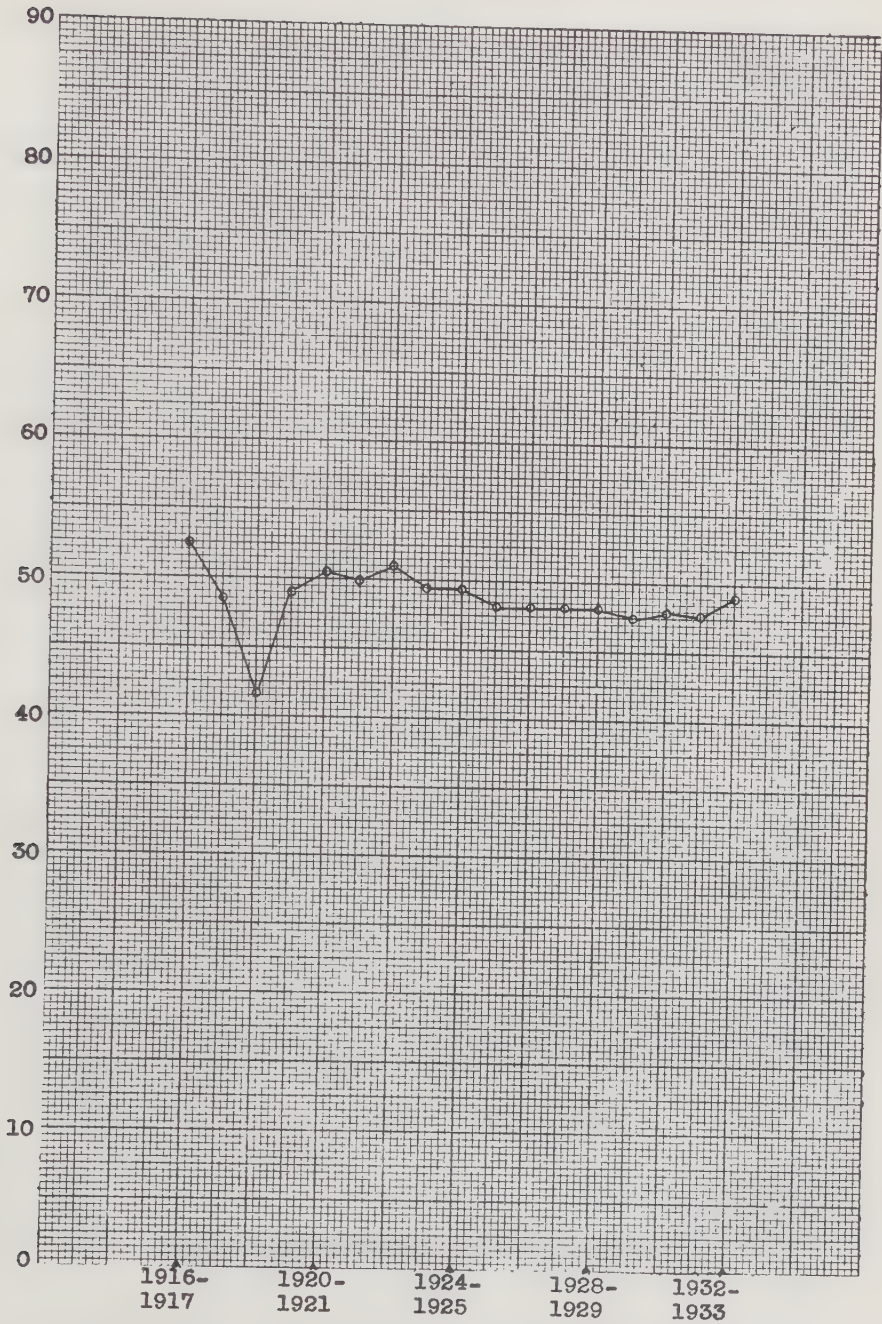


Fig. 4.- Per cent of county high school teachers who were men, 1916-1933.

TABLE VII

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF MEN AND WOMEN TEACHERS
EMPLOYED IN CITY ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS
1899-1933

Year	Men Teachers		Women Teachers		Total
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	
1899-1900	183	19.1	773	80.9	956
1900-01	168	17.4	795	82.6	963
1901-02	193	18.0	879	82.0	1072
1902-03	198	17.8	915	82.2	1113
1903-04	215	18.3	958	81.7	1173
1904-05	192	16.9	944	83.1	1136
1907-08	247	17.5	1158	82.5	1405
1908-09	285	21.3	1046	78.7	1331
1911-12	319	17.2	1534	82.8	1853
1912-13	275	18.7	1195	81.3	1470
1913-14	413	17.4	1959	82.6	2372
1914-15	369	15.6	2002	84.4	2371
1915-16	426	17.0	2076	83.0	2502
1916-17	369	15.6	2002	84.4	2371
1917-18	226	9.6	2133	90.4	2359
1918-19	203	8.7	2138	91.3	2342
1919-20	225	8.7	2370	91.3	2595
1920-21	223	7.9	2600	92.1	2823
1921-22	231	7.5	2850	92.5	3081
1922-23	246	7.6	2987	92.4	3233
1923-24	249	7.7	2987	92.3	3236
1924-25	137	5.2	2513	94.8	2650
1925-26	237	6.6	3340	93.4	3577
1926-27	255	7.3	3368	92.7	3623
1927-28	223	6.8	2948	93.2	3271
1928-29	196	7.3	2509	92.7	2705
1929-30	294	6.7	3972	93.3	4266
1930-31	323	6.7	4152	93.3	4475
1931-32	332	7.9	3879	92.1	4211
1932-33	341	8.3	3779	91.7	4120

colored male, 2; colored female, 0; total male, 37; total female, 0. For Union County, also in rural East Tennessee, the figures are: white male, 45; white female, 2; no colored teachers reported.

In 1900¹ the figures for the state at large were: males, 4874; females, 4163. For the cities, however, the figures were: males, 183; females, 773.

As late as 1921-22 the differences were still impressive.²

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1900, pp. 39, 44.

²Report of the State Superintendent, 1921-22, p. 33.

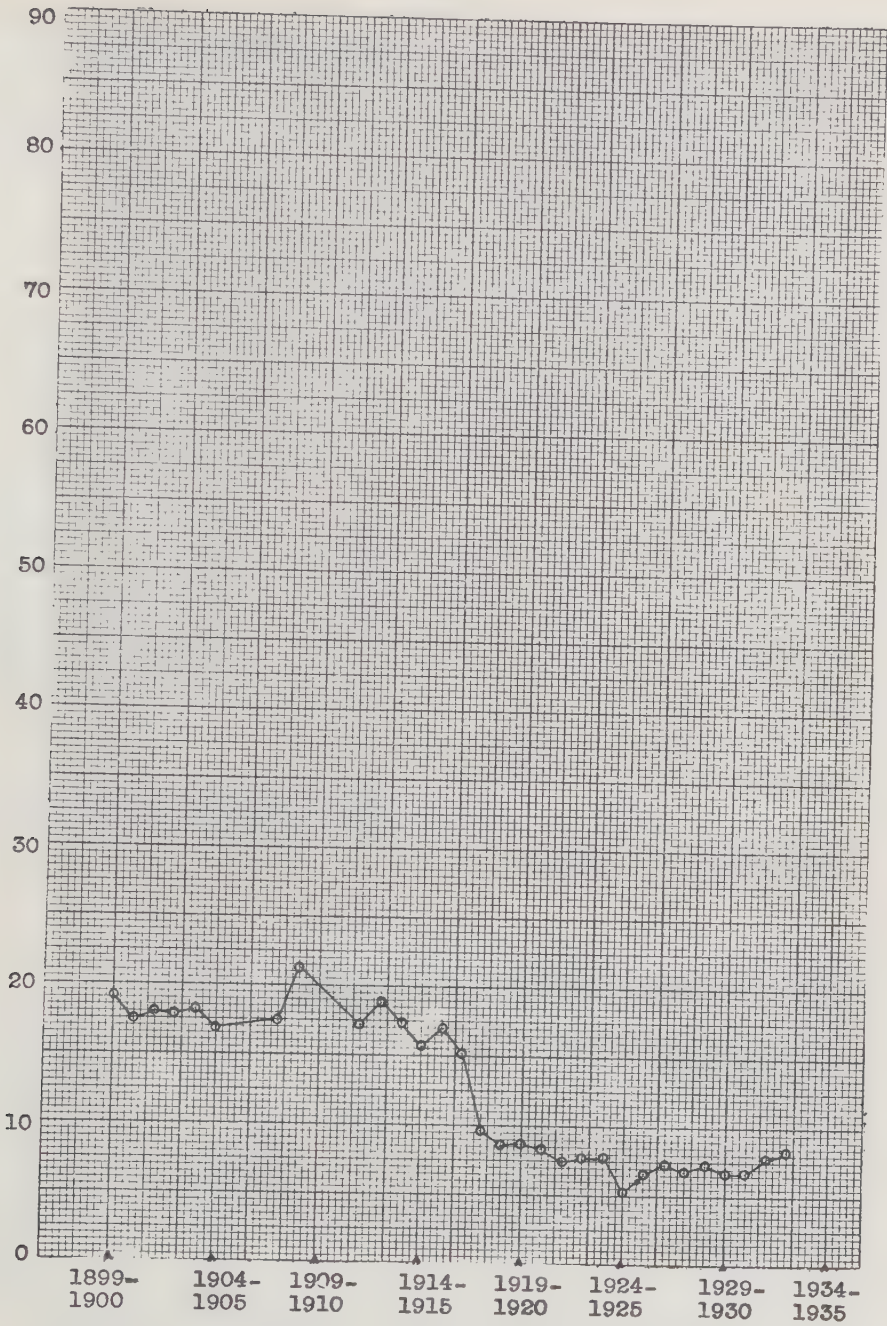


Fig. 5.- Per cent of city elementary teachers who were men, 1899-1933.

The totals for rural elementary schools were: males, 2626; females, 7537. This equals a ratio of slightly more than 1 to 3. The totals for city elementary schools were: males, 231; females, 2850. This equals a ratio of slightly more than 1 to 12.

In 1932-33 these ratios were only slightly changed.¹ In rural elementary schools there were 2679 men teachers and 9153 women teachers, equaling a ratio of slightly less than 1 to 3. In city elementary schools there were 340 men and 3779 women teachers, equaling a ratio of slightly more than 1 to 12. These figures signify that there had been a slight decrease of men teachers in the rural elementary schools and a slight increase in city elementary schools. The change is not sufficient, however, to have any concrete significance. The data show in general that there is about one-fourth as much probability that a city elementary school teacher will be a man as that a rural elementary teacher will be one.

As women became more prominent in educational work it was natural that they would occasionally aspire to a position of administrative leadership. Accordingly questions arose as to whether women were eligible under the law of 1873 to serve as county superintendent. The personal pronoun "he" was used so frequently in the section concerning qualifications for the office that the Attorney General ruled women were not eligible. To eliminate this restriction the legislature in 1889² passed an amendment to the law of 1873 which read as follows:

In the election of county superintendent of education, women of the age of twenty-one years, and otherwise possessing the necessary qualifications, shall be eligible for said position.

As a matter of fact, few women have served as county superintendent in Tennessee. Some of those who have held the position, however, have attained eminence.

Teacher qualifications.- An attempt will not be made in the present study to present an elaborate analysis of the gradual improvement in the qualifications of teachers which occurred in Tennessee. Selected statistics, compiled mostly since the law of 1925 went into effect, will suffice to indicate the extent of the improvement which has been made during recent years.

As will be explained in Chapter IV, it is legal in Tennessee for the state commissioner of education, on recommendation

¹Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1932-33, pp. 204-205.

²Acts of 1889, chap. 107.

of a county superintendent to issue permits to teach to persons not qualified to secure a regular certificate. In Table VIII is shown the total number of such permits issued yearly from 1925-26 to 1932-33. It is gratifying that the number issued has diminished; it is regrettable that the practice has not been discontinued altogether.

TABLE VIII

NUMBER OF PERMITS TO TEACH ISSUED TO PERSONS
NOT QUALIFIED TO SECURE REGULAR CERTIFICATES
1925-1933

Year	County Elementary Schools	City Elementary Schools	County High Schools	Total
1925-26	1362	26	91	1479
1926-27	1290	76	38	1404
1927-28	1130	36	49	1215
1928-29	812	85	43	940
1929-30	618	73	53	744
1930-31	327	14	30	371
1931-32	298	62	29	389
1932-33	246	36	8	290

A brighter side of the picture is presented by the encouraging increase in the number of elementary teachers holding permanent certificates, as shown in Table IX. Such certificates are issued to applicants who have completed two years of college, including eighteen quarter hours in Education.

TABLE IX

NUMBER OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS
HOLDING PERMANENT CERTIFICATES
1926-1933

Year	County	City	Total
1926-27	984	633	1617
1927-28	1439	713	2152
1928-29	1917	814	2731
1929-30	2318	1766	4084
1930-31	2594	1078	3672
1931-32	3348	1096	4444
1932-33	3964	1172	5136

The number of county high school teachers holding permanent professional certificates is shown in Table X. Permanent high school certificates are issued to applicants who possess the bachelor's degree from accredited institutions and who have had twenty-seven quarter hours in Education. It is gratifying to note the reasonably rapid increase in the per cent of county high school teachers holding permanent professional certificates.

TABLE X
NUMBER OF PERMANENT PROFESSIONAL CERTIFICATES
HELD BY COUNTY HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS
1926-1933

Year	Total Number of Certificates	Permanent Certificates	
		Number	Per Cent Of Total Number
1926-27	2063	1264	61.3
1927-28	2218	1499	67.5
1928-29	2356	1798	76.2
1929-30	2598	2079	80.0
1930-31	2658	2217	83.4
1931-32	2672	2261	84.6
1932-33	2629	2324	88.4

A notable increase in the number of elementary school teachers who are college graduates is shown by the data which are presented in Table XI.

TABLE XI
NUMBER OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS
WHO ARE COLLEGE GRADUATES
1922-1933

Year	Total Number Of Teachers Employed	College Graduates Employed			
		In County Systems	In City Systems	Total	Per Cent of Total Employed
1922-23	13193	321	253	574	4.4
1923-24	12879	335	221	556	4.3
1924-25	13405	284	229	513	3.8
1925-26	14372	341	301	641	4.5
1926-27	14256	421	298	719	5.0
1927-28	15449	464	432	896	5.8
1928-29	14319	560	412	972	6.8
1929-30	15733	620	756	1376	8.7
1930-31	16012	833	969	1802	11.3
1931-32	15884	898	991	1889	12.3
1932-33	15951	1110	1053	2163	13.5

Inexperienced teachers.- In Table XII are presented data concerning the number of teachers without previous experience employed each year since 1922. Although exceptions are recorded in some years, the general trend seems to be to employ fewer inexperienced teachers. This fact is of interest for two reasons. It indicates first a tendency for a larger percentage of experienced elementary teachers to remain in the profession; this is an encouraging sign to those who believe that, other things being equal, years of experience increase efficiency of service. It shows also that, unless conditions change, the number of young people who can hope to enter teaching will become smaller each year.

TABLE XII

NUMBER OF ELEMENTARY TEACHERS WITHOUT
PREVIOUS EXPERIENCE, 1922-1933

Year	In County Systems	In City Systems	Total
1922-23	1754	90	1844
1923-24	1986	113	2099
1924-25	2029	90	2119
1925-26	2081	87	2168
1926-27	2133	141	2274
1927-28	1979	178	2157
1928-29	1576	126	2002
1929-30	1529	173	1702
1930-31	1510	232	1742
1931-32	1304	157	1461
1932-33	1465	107	1572

Salary of teachers and length of school term.- An important factor in the development of any profession concerns the manner in which society has seen fit to reward those who have entered the vocation. The two most important items are perhaps salary and amount of employment provided annually. Information concerning the reward which Tennessee has given to her public school teachers is presented in this section.

In 1883, President Stearns of the newly established Peabody Normal College identified what he conceived to be the "chief obstacles to the success of the college" in the following statement about the difficulty encountered in inducing parents to send their children to the school:

. . . . but looking upon it in a business light, and from a pecuniary standpoint, as so very many have to do, it seems to them poor economy to place their children in an institution,

however great its advantages, and however cheap the tuition, when there will not only be no money income from two or three years of time while board must be paid and clothing bought, but which after all offers such small rewards for all this expenditure as does the profession of the teacher.¹

Statistical evidence is available, dating from the initial report of the first state superintendent appointed under the general law of 1873, which shows the salary and length of school term in Tennessee during the sixty years from 1874 to the present. Although it is sometimes difficult to interpret the facts presented by the various superintendents, it appears that throughout the nineteenth century and the early part of the twentieth century all public school teachers were included in computing averages. In recent years averages have been calculated for various groups, such as white and colored, elementary school and high school, city school and county school.

The data concerning salary and length of school term from 1874 to 1899 are presented in Table XIII. These figures indicate the correctness of the statement of President Stearns concerning the meagerness of the rewards of the profession of public school teacher in Tennessee in the nineteenth century.

TABLE XIII
AVERAGE SALARY AND AVERAGE LENGTH
OF SCHOOL TERM, 1874-1899

Year	Average Salary Per Month	Average Number Of Days Taught Per Year	Average Yearly Salary
1874	\$32.00	77.0	\$123.20
1875	30.85	67.0	103.35
1876	32.18	71.9	115.68
1877	28.53	70.0	99.85
1878	28.12	77.0	108.26
1885	28.52	80.0	114.08
1886	28.65	78.0	111.73
1887	28.41	77.0	109.33
1888	29.71	71.0	117.35
1889	30.40	85.0	129.20
1890	31.24	86.0	134.33
1891	31.37	96.0	149.95
1892	30.85	96.0	148.08
1893	31.10	86.0	133.73
1894	30.62	86.0	131.66
1895	20.43	84.3	86.11
1896	29.41	83.0	122.05
1899	28.42	89.0	126.47

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1883, p. 52.

The twentieth century brought a certain amount of improvement, due partly no doubt to the educational campaigns so vigorously carried on from 1903 to 1912. (See Chapter II.) The average monthly salary rose abruptly from \$28.86 in 1902 to \$37.30 in 1903. It was not until 1907 that the average yearly salary reached \$200.00. By 1914 it had climbed to \$333.20, only to decline, during the war, to \$255.46 in 1918.

After the war the average yearly salary rose rapidly. It reached \$455.51 in 1921. For 1931 the following averages are given for white elementary teachers: men, \$680.67; women, \$617.33.

The average length of the school term in county elementary schools followed a course roughly parallel to that of salaries. It rose to 121 days by 1910. It also suffered a war-time decline to 104 days in 1919. In 1931 the average term in county elementary schools was 152 days.

As a matter of course, high schools, from the beginning of their establishment in 1899, have had a term of nine months and have paid better salaries than elementary schools. The longer term has been dictated by the accrediting agencies. The higher salaries seem to have been favored by the public, though they are to be explained at least partly by the fact that on the average high school teachers have possessed superior qualifications to elementary teachers.

Averages in medians do not complete the picture. The wide variations between salaries in one county and those in another also shed some light on what the condition of the school teacher in Tennessee has been. The following figures give a fair sample of these variations: in 1883, salaries ranged from a monthly average of \$16.37 in Van Buren County to a monthly average of \$53.00 in Davidson County; in 1889, from \$17.50 in Pickett County to \$52.50 in Davidson County; in 1890, from \$20.40 in Pickett County to \$53.00 in Davidson County; in 1894, from \$20.88 in Overton County to \$56.00 in Lake County; in 1910, from \$29.86 in Cocke County to \$57.00 in Hamilton County; in 1914, from \$25.00 in Hardeman County to \$57.54 in Hamilton County; in 1915, from \$30.00 in Hardeman and Pickett Counties to \$57.16 in Hamilton County; in 1916, from \$11.75 in Pickett County to \$32.00 in Montgomery County, \$56.04 in Hamilton County and \$60.00 in Loudon County; in 1917, from \$30.00 in Crockett County to \$60.00 in Macon County; in 1918, from \$33.91 in Montgomery County to \$69.00 in Polk County; in 1919, from \$30.00 in McMinn County to \$69.29 in Davidson County. Striking as these figures are, it is to be remembered that they are themselves averages. If the average salary in Pickett County in 1916 was \$11.75, it is apparent

that the lowest salary must have been very small indeed.

A similar wide variation from county to county may be noted in the length of the school term. Fair samples of the available data follow: in 1888, the average number of days taught varied from 40 in Hardin County to 175 in Davidson County; in 1887, it varied from 40 in Jackson County to 165 in Davidson County; in 1889, from 45 in Pickett County to 174 in Davidson County; in 1890, from 60 in Pickett County to 174 in Shelby County; in 1910, from 68 in Cheatham and Overton Counties to 170 in Williamson County; in 1915, from 70 in Chester and Meigs Counties to 175 in Hamilton County; in 1916, from 38 in Fentress County, 60 in Giles County, 70 in Pickett County, to 175 in Hamilton County. Here again the figures given, being themselves averages, give no more than a hint of what the variations must have been in individual schools.

Although the chief purpose of this chapter is to present a picture, from official records, of the teaching profession in Tennessee, the inevitable net result of short school terms and poor salaries should be pointed out, namely, the releasing into adult life of thousands of youths who are ignorant, ill prepared for life, and almost or quite illiterate.

Salary of county superintendents.- The struggle of the county superintendency in Tennessee to rise to the rank of a profession began under most discouraging circumstances. The general law of 1873¹ provided that the county superintendent "shall receive such pay for his services as may be allowed him by the County Court." As might have been expected, the allowances of the county court were seldom generous. It was inevitable that the progress of public education in the state should suffer accordingly.

As late as 1890 fifteen counties paid no salaries whatever to the county superintendent, as may be seen in Table XIV.

TABLE XIV
ANNUAL SALARIES PAID COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS
IN TENNESSEE IN 1890*

County	Salary	County	Salary
Anderson	\$ 200.00	Blount	\$ 300.00
Bedford	625.00	Bradley	125.00
Benton	104.00	Campbell	300.00
Bledsoe	75.00	Cannon	250.00

¹Acts of 1873, chap. 25.

TABLE XIV (CONTINUED)

County	Salary	County	Salary
Carroll	\$ 250.00	Lincoln	400.00
Carter	150.00	Loudon	164.00
Cheatham	100.00	Macon	225.00
Chester	218.75	Madison	400.00
Claiborne	--	Marion	225.00
Clay	150.00	Marshall	--
Cocke	--	Maury	350.00
Coffee	--	McMinn	--
Crockett	300.00	McNairy	183.31
Cumberland	220.00	Meigs	50.00
Davidson	3600.00	Monroe	280.00
Decatur	137.50	Montgomery	250.00
DeKalb	300.00	Moore	100.00
Dickson	200.00	Morgan	200.00
Dyer	300.00	Obion	525.00
Fayette	350.00	Overton	150.00
Fentress	150.00	Perry	240.00
Franklin	300.00	Pickett	60.50
Gibson	500.00	Polk	85.00
Giles	500.00	Putnam	200.00
Grainger	175.00	Rhea	--
Greene	501.25	Roane	--
Grundy	50.00	Robertson	400.00
Hamblen	200.00	Rutherford	500.00
Hamilton	1200.00	Scott	--
Hancock	300.00	Sequatchie	75.00
Hardeman	200.00	Sevier	200.00
Hardin	200.00	Shelby	1000.00
Hawkins	--	Smith	300.00
Haywood	--	Stewart	250.00
Henderson	100.00	Sullivan	250.00
Henry	300.00	Sumner	--
Hickman	190.00	Tipton	--
Houston	100.00	Trousdale	100.00
Humphreys	200.00	Unicoi	--
Jackson	100.00	Union	200.00
James	50.00	Van Buren	35.00
Jefferson	350.00	Warren	300.00
Johnson	100.00	Washington	300.00
Knox	1000.00	Wayne	150.00
Lake	125.00	Weakley	500.00
Lauderdale	--	White	300.00
Lawrence	175.00	Williamson	300.00
Lewis	60.00	Wilson	--

*Data from Report of the State Superintendent, 1890, pp. 58-61.

Probably what happened in these fifteen counties was that a teacher in each county, perhaps a principal, was elected superintendent and performed for no extra remuneration the few duties required of him.

The average salaries paid county superintendents in the years for which data are available are shown in Table XV. It will be seen that notable improvement was made in the decade from 1922 to 1932. But a sharp decline in average salary occurred in 1933.

TABLE XV
AVERAGE SALARIES PAID COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS
IN TENNESSEE, 1876-1933

Year	Salary	Year	Salary	Year	Salary
1876	\$ 207.98	1908	\$ 549.00	1922	\$ 1,393.62
1891	316.41	1910	650.37	1923	1,519.66
1893	297.43	1911	584.18	1924	1,448.13
1895	275.43	1912	807.26	1925	1,493.22
1899	289.25	1913	845.86	1926	1,550.38
1900	296.58	1914	882.54	1927	1,460.09
1901	294.13	1915	880.49	1928	1,504.62
1902	286.82	1917	889.58	1929	1,512.53
1903	320.20	1918	889.86	1930	2,178.41
1904	369.63	1919	936.79	1931	2,108.13
1905	410.77	1920	968.05	1932	2,207.59
1907	455.21	1921	1,087.98	1933	1,946.26

A more complete picture of the salaries paid can be secured by examining the extremes from which these averages were made up. Some of the available data follow:

1891: salaries paid county superintendents ranged from \$35.00 a year in Van Buren County to \$3,600.00 a year in Davidson County.

1893: the lowest salary was \$75.00 a year, paid in three counties, as against the highest, \$3,800.00, paid in Hamilton County.

1895: Overton, Polk, and Unicoi Counties each paid \$75.00; Davidson County, \$1200.00; Hamilton County, \$3,200.00.

1899: Unicoi County paid \$43.75; Humphreys County, \$50.00; Cannon, Lake, Lewis, Meigs Counties, \$75.00; Shelby County, \$1,200.00; Hamilton County, \$1,425.00.

1900: Unicoi County paid \$43.24; James County, \$50.00; Lewis County, \$75.00; Knox County, \$1,000.00; Montgomery and Shelby Counties, \$1,200.00; Davidson County, \$1,300.00; Hamilton County, \$1,500.00

1901: Jackson County paid \$35.00; McNairy County, \$50.00; Sequatchie County, \$75.00; Davidson, Montgomery, and Shelby Counties, \$1,200.00; Hamilton County, \$1,500.00.

1903: Van Buren County paid \$50.00; Meigs County, \$75.00; Lake and Unicoi Counties, \$87.50; Montgomery County, \$1,100.00; Knox County, \$1,183.33; Shelby County, \$1,200.00; Davidson County, \$1,325.00; Hamilton County, \$1,500.00.

The extremely wide variations in the annual salaries paid county superintendents are to be explained mainly by the fact that some of the less populous counties for many years did not employ full time superintendents while the larger counties did. In a county which did not employ a full time superintendent, someone, possibly a teacher or farmer or merchant, was selected to perform the legal functions of the office for the small annual salary paid. Under these conditions, the superintendency contributed little to the progress of Tennessee public education. It may be inferred from the data presented that the number of counties with full time superintendents increased; also that the amount of compensation paid for full time work as superintendent rose steadily. In this connection the state superintendent of schools wrote in his report for 1907-08:

The legislature could render no better service to the schools of the state than to pass an act fixing a minimum salary for County Superintendents, the State paying a certain portion of the salary on condition that the county pay the remainder.¹

A provision designed to put into effect the above recommendation was written into the general school law of 1909.² Its language is as follows:

Each county in the state shall receive from this fund, to be paid on the salary of the County Superintendent, an amount equal to that which is paid by the county; provided that no county shall receive from this fund for this purpose more than \$350 in any one year; provided further that any county superintendent receiving the maximum amount (\$350.00) from this fund as herein provided shall devote all his time to the duties of the office for a period not less than nine months in the year, and he may be required to devote thereto all his time for the entire year.

This law attempted to stimulate both the payment of adequate compensation to superintendents and the employment of men to devote their full time to the work. This act was the first real step towards professionalizing the county superintendency in Tennessee.

No further changes were made in the legal status of the county superintendency until the passage of the general education

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1907-08, p. 43.

²Acts of 1909, chap. 264.

law of 1925. This act, however, made two very important provisions. One was that the county superintendent is required "to give his full time and attention to the duties of his position as county superintendent."¹ The other reads as follows:

Each county in the state to receive from this fund an amount equal to that which is paid by the county on the salary or compensation of the County Superintendent; provided that no county shall receive from this fund more than one thousand dollars in any one year; and that no county shall receive any part of this fund unless it pay to the County Superintendent as much as \$500.00 per annum on his compensation; provided further that any County Superintendent receiving any part of this fund as herein provided shall devote all of his or her time to the duties of his or her position.²

¹Art. VI, sec. 31.

²Art. XVII, sec. 94.

CHAPTER IV

TEACHER CERTIFICATION

The purpose of the present chapter is to trace the development of the means of social control which have been utilized by the state of Tennessee to insure that her public schools should be taught by capable persons. Investigation of the subject reveals the fact that two types of agencies have been employed by the state. These are laws concerning certification enacted by the legislature, and regulations concerning certification formulated by the state board of education and the chief state school officer. Accordingly the topics studied in the chapter are laws concerning certification and regulations concerning certification.

Laws Concerning Certification

The certification of teachers: 1856 to 1873.- Tennessee had been a state of the Union for sixty years before it made any provision by law in regard to the qualifications of teachers. It does not follow, however, that the Tennesseans of that period had no interest in obtaining capable teachers for their schools. That at least some of them were interested is shown by the efforts which were made to induce young people of ability to enter the teaching profession (see Chapter III). The people of the state were content however to let the individuals who employed the teachers act as sole judges of a candidate's ability, just as society as a whole is content today to let individual colleges set their own standards for their faculties without any regulations by the law. Gradually, however, people began to doubt the advisability of this system of home rule, uncontrolled and unregulated. They began to realize that it was not working satisfactorily, that it was not producing a desirable teaching force for the state, and that from ignorant and incompetent teachers the whole social group must eventually suffer. As the concept of group responsibility in the matter of public education took hold, it became inevitable that the problem of providing capable teachers would sooner or later become one for legislative concern.

The legislative session of 1856 enacted the state's first law dealing with certification.¹ The title of the act stated

¹Acts of 1856, chap. 114.

that its purpose was "to prevent incompetent persons from teaching free schools" - an important objective which has not yet been attained nearly eighty years later. The importance of the law justifies quoting it in full:

Section 1. Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Tennessee, that the County Courts of each county in this state be authorized and required, on the first Monday in January of each and every year, to elect one or more commissioner or commissioners, whose duty it shall be to examine all applicants to teach the Free Schools; and if, upon examination, the applicant is considered competent to teach Orthography, Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, Geography, English Grammar, etc., he or she shall be entitled to a certificate of such competency; and be it further enacted, that the Common School Commissioners shall not employ any person to teach school without their first producing a certificate, as required in this act, of their competency to teach what may be required by the Commissioners.

Section 2. Be it further enacted, that each applicant shall pay to the County School Commissioners the sum of one dollar for his or her examination, for their services.

Section 3. Be it further enacted, that, whenever a vacancy shall occur among the School Commissioners in any school district, it shall be the duty of the Sheriff of the County in which such school district is situated, to hold an election to fill said vacancy; and any law now in force in conflict with this act, is hereby repealed.

This law was a gesture in the right direction, but it was defective in failing to specify any qualifications for the "Commissioner or Commissioners," who were to examine and certificate the teachers. There is no reason to believe that any great effort was made to enforce the provisions of this first certification law, and whatever enforcement of it there may have been was interrupted only a few years later by the outbreak of the Civil War.

It is notable that even this earliest law contained the provision that the school commissioners were not to employ anyone to teach who did not produce a certificate. This provision has been enacted again and again, yet it has been violated many times, sometimes openly and sometimes by means of the subterfuge of issuing teaching permits.

The law of 1856 was weakened two years after its passage by reducing the subjects in which the applicant was required to be examined to orthography, reading, writing, and arithmetic.¹ The examination might cover other subjects, and the names of these subjects be written on the certificates, but only the four mentioned were specified.

¹Acts of 1857-58, chap. 75.

The same act which created the office of county superintendent in 1867¹ imposed upon that official the duty of examining all candidates for certificates and of renewing their certificates by examination each year. As has already been noted, however, (Chapter II) this rather progressive law was repealed in 1870 by a very reactionary one² which abolished the county superintendency. This law provided:

That the County Board of Education shall prescribe the mode and manner in which applicants to teach shall be examined, and the extent of the qualifications required.

The certification of teachers: 1873 to 1913.- The duty of examining teachers and issuing their certificates was once more placed in the hands of the county superintendent, when that office was restored by the general law of 1873. The wording of the provision was as follows:

That no teacher of public schools shall be employed or receive any pay from the public funds unless he or she have a certificate of qualification, given to him or her by the county superintendent for the county in which he or she is employed.³

Thus the county rather than the local district was definitely established as the unit for administering teacher certification. Further, the idea of the state as a unit was introduced in embryonic form in another section of the law of 1873, empowering the state superintendent "to prescribe the method of licensing school teachers and their necessary qualifications."

This sweeping grant of power to the state superintendent was ineffectual, because he was given no means of enforcing his regulations. Acting under the provision of the law, the state superintendent from time to time issued general instructions regarding the conduct of examinations, but the county superintendent was free to make out his own examination, grade it, and certify whomever he pleased.

The natural result was that there was absolutely no set standard as to the nature and degree of difficulty of examinations given; everything depended on the disposition, even on the momentary whim, of the individual county superintendent. Some of the older teachers in Tennessee remember the examinations given when this system was in use and report that they varied all the way from written examinations of considerable difficulty to merely

¹Acts of 1866-67, chap. 27.

²Acts of 1869-70, chap. 64.

³Acts of 1873, chap. 25.

a few perfunctory oral questions. One of these older teachers recalls that on one occasion a negro appeared before a county superintendent seeking a certificate. The superintendent opened the examination with the question, "What do you read?" The negro replied, "I read the Yellow Jacket." The certificate was issued at once, with no further questions. The Yellow Jacket was a radical political publication which espoused the political faith to which the county superintendent gave allegiance.

In order to clarify the use of the terms in the remainder of the chapter, it should be explained here that in the terminology used in Tennessee there are two general kinds of certificates: examination certificates and professional certificates. The former are obtained simply by taking an examination covering certain subjects; the latter by completing a specified minimum of academic and professional courses at a state or state approved college. Originally, only the examination certificate was used. Today it has been almost entirely displaced by the professional certificate.

The first provision in Tennessee law for the issuance of professional certificates was contained in the law of 1875,¹ which authorized the establishment of "a normal school or schools." The provision was:

That diplomas shall be granted to those who honorably complete the course of study prescribed in said schools; and the possession of such diplomas shall exempt the holder thereof from the examination prescribed as a condition precedent to employment in the public schools of the state, any such graduate being eligible as a teacher in any county of the state.

In addition to being the beginning of what later came to be called the professional certificate, this provision has two other points of interest. The examination certificate in use up to this time was good only in the county where issued and only for one year. Here for the first time a form of certificate was provided which was good in any county and which did not expire in a year. It would even be a fair conclusion from the indefinite wording of the act that this form of certificate was good for the life of the holder.

The same privilege of issuing a professional certificate, which was granted by law to the state normal school, was later conferred in some manner - presumably by the state board - on other institutions as well. In 1893 the University of Tennessee inserted the following announcement in its catalogue:

¹Acts of 1875, chap. 90.

A certificate, with the title of Licentiate of Instruction, which licenses, without further examination, to teach in the primary and secondary schools of the state, will be given upon completion of the following (course).¹

The same privilege was also given to the Teachers Department of Hiwassee College, a private institution,² and perhaps to other private colleges as well. In those days a little college training was handsomely rewarded.

Something of the status of this new practice may be seen from the following two passages which appear in a compilation of school laws issued in 1892:

No state certificate is issued. The State Board of Education may authorize normal schools to issue diplomas which license the holder to teach in any public school in the state. Under the authority of the State Board, the Peabody Normal College at Nashville, and the Teachers Department of the University of Tennessee at Knoxville issue certificates and diplomas to graduates which are equivalent to state certificates.³

Such graduate (of a normal school) is eligible in any county, and a certificate from the county superintendent is not necessary. It is better, however, in order to avoid any controversy, that the county superintendent shall issue a first grade secondary certificate without examination.⁴

No further important changes in the law regarding certification were made until the passage of the general education bill in 1909.⁵ This bill, however, represented an important step in the development of teacher certification as a state function. Until this time there had been no special certificate or qualification requirement in regard to high school teachers; however the law of 1909 provided that:

All teachers in the public county high schools receiving aid from this high school fund under the provisions of this section of this act shall be examined and licensed under regulations prescribed by the State Board of Education, and said board is hereby empowered and instructed to make rules and regulations for the examination and licensing of such teachers.

The wording of this act restricts its effect to "public county high schools." For public high schools in cities which

¹The University of Tennessee Register, 1893-94, p. 18.

²Report of the State Superintendent, 1899, p. 327.

³Public School Laws of Tennessee, 1892, sec. 26.

⁴Ibid., sec. 54.

⁵Acts of 1909, chap. 264.

are organized into independent districts there is no provision, and in some of these schools teachers without certificates are still being employed. It is notable also that this law invests the state board with absolute authority "to make rules and regulations," a foreshadowing of a tendency in school administration to which more detailed attention will be given in a later section.

The law of 1909 also contained a very liberal provision in regard to professional certificates:

Certificate of graduation from any one of the said normal schools shall entitle the holder thereof to teach in any of the public schools of the state without further examination for a period of four years from the date of such certificate. Any such graduate who completes within the said period of four years such additional courses of reading and study as may be prescribed by the State Board of Education and shall pass the required examinations in the same and has proven his ability as a teacher by teaching acceptably not less than fifteen months within this period may, upon application, be granted a permanent license to teach in any of the public elementary schools of the state.

"The said normal schools" are the new state normal schools, which were created by this same law of 1909.

Thus the matter stood until 1913. The forty years between 1873 and 1913 saw the creation and partial development of professional certificates and the extension of some state authority over the issuance of examination certificates. To a large extent, however, the county superintendent still regulated certification. He had complete administrative control in granting certificates based upon examinations. Only a small fraction of the teachers secured a professional certificate, and there is evidence that some county superintendents assumed the prerogative of deciding whether or not this certificate should be recognized in their counties. It is perhaps significant that in one of the passages quoted above, the state superintendent suggested that, in order "to avoid any controversy," those holding professional certificates should also secure "without examination" certificates from the county superintendents.

The lack of uniformity between requirements in various counties, which resulted from leaving certification in the hands of individual county superintendents, has already been pointed out. In his report for 1906, the state superintendent called attention to this condition and urged state certification as the remedy:

I believe the time has come when some arrangement should be made for uniform examination of teachers. Under the present system, the granting of certificates is solely in the hands of the County Superintendent. While having as a guide the

general directions issued by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, the County Superintendent really sets his own standard, and his markings may be very liberal or rigid. In the grading of one County Superintendent 90% may mean no more than 50% by another. The County Superintendent is also subjected to the importunities of relatives and friends of unsuccessful candidates, and has before him the temptation of straining a point that a certificate may be issued to some applicant who has in fact failed in the examination.

So long as we have 96 County Superintendents we will have as many standards. The ideals of what teachers should be are so low in some counties that teachers holding first-class certificates in these counties could obtain only a second-class or third-class in others. Being the sole judge of the fitness of applicants, the County Superintendent may often become careless or negligent.

A state examination and certification of teachers would make a certificate good in any county in the state and remove all the above objections to it.¹

The first uniform state certification law was passed in 1913.

The certification of teachers: 1913 to 1925.- In order to remedy the unsatisfactory condition which prevailed, the legislature, in 1913, enacted a law "to provide a uniform method for the examination and certification of teachers." The intention of its framers was to transfer all authority over certification from the county to the state at large. In practice, however, this purpose has not been wholly achieved.

Even after the passage of the new law a number of influences were at work which delayed the realization of the system of uniform state-wide certification which was intended. One of these was the unfamiliarity of many people with the provisions, and even with the purposes, of the new law. People who had looked to the county superintendent for their certificates for many years tended to look to him still. Another was the great difficulty of administering the new law during the first few years because of the almost total lack of adequate administrative machinery. In 1915, for example, the total number of applicants examined was 14,126.² Assuming ten examinations for each applicant, there were more than 140,000 papers to be graded. It is no wonder that the state superintendent announced that, although questions would be prepared by the state department, the old system of having the county superintendent conduct and grade examinations would be temporarily

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1906, p. 26.

²Report of the State Superintendent, 1915-16, p. 22.

continued. Even after order was attained, the county superintendent had considerable power. The law provided for holding examinations locally in each county as well as at selected points in the state at large. Since he personally conducted these local examinations, the county superintendent still had some influence upon the results, although he no longer prepared the questions or scored the papers. The state superintendent, in his report for 1915-16, records the following incident:

That the State Uniform Examination and Certification for Teachers is giving satisfaction is proven by the testimony of the County Superintendents. In answer to the question, Does your county approve of the uniform examination law? 63 out of 64 replying said Yes. The county saying No is the county where last December the examination papers had to be thrown out on account of copying and other irregularities.¹

That the framers of the law of 1913 feared such a result is shown by their inclusion of a clause prescribing the penalty for irregularities in the conduct of an examination:

Any county superintendent, member of examining committee, printer, officers of state or county, or any other person who shall sell, barter, give or furnish or procure to be sold, bartered, given or furnished to any applicant for a certificate to teach in the public schools, or to any person, any question or questions prepared or sent out by the State Board of Examiners for the examination of persons applying for such certificates, or in any way dispose of such question or questions except in the manner provided by law and the regulations of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and, upon conviction thereof, shall be fined not less than \$100.00, and may be imprisoned at the discretion of the court.

Aside from these considerations, there is one more reason why the county superintendent has been able to retain some of his power: there was a legal loophole in the law of 1913. The clause reads:

In case there are not enough teachers with certificates applying for the schools in any county, the State Superintendent of Public Instruction may issue a temporary certificate to a sufficient number of those persons who stood the examination in that county and who are most nearly qualified. . . .

No doubt the legislators believed that they were making a necessary exception to provide for a possible scarcity of teachers. However, this clause has actually had a very harmful effect by making

¹Ibid., p. 23.

possible evasion of the certificate law. Furthermore, a similar provision is contained in the law of 1925:

Whenever in any county the county superintendent certifies to the state Commissioner of Education that all available licensed teachers in the county have been employed, that he or she is unable to secure licensed teachers and that other approved teaching positions remain unfilled, the State Commissioner of Education may grant permits to teach in said unfilled positions to persons recommended by the county superintendent and approved by the Commissioner, which permits shall be valid only until the next regular state examination of teachers.

One frequently hears it said in Tennessee that the spirit of this provision has been violated in the past. It is stated that superintendents have been unable to find "available licensed teachers," while unemployed teachers, legally certificated, have tried to obtain appointments. The state department of education in issuing permits has been forced to rely mainly on the recommendations of county superintendents, because it has not been in position to maintain the field staff which would have been necessary to make adequate investigations in all cases.

But perhaps the most regrettable form of evasion of the certification law is the passage of private acts which nullify the provisions of the general law in a given county. For instance, a private act of 1927,¹ applicable to one county, authorizes the county board of education to pay all teachers who taught any part of the term for the year 1925-26, "who cannot be paid under the present law due to the fact that they did not hold a certificate of qualification from the Department of Education of Tennessee."

It is encouraging to note, however, that the state department under the present administration has been exceedingly diligent in the effort to obtain complete and accurate school statistics for the various counties. This publicity is known to have had a salutary effect already, and it seems reasonable to hope that the practice of teaching under permits and teaching without any kind of certificate will soon be a thing of the past in Tennessee.

For the purpose of the present study it is not necessary to present a detailed account of the contents of the certificate law of 1913. In brief, it provided for the following kinds of certificates:

A. Examination certificates

1. Elementary

a. First grade, good for five years

¹Acts of 1927, chap. 292.

- b. Second grade, good for two years
- c. Temporary

2. High School

- a. First grade, good for five years
- b. Second grade, good for two years
- c. Temporary

B. Professional certificates

1. Elementary, on the completion of the "Academic Course" in a state normal school, or its equivalent
2. Combination first-class, on completion of the two-year normal course in a state normal school
3. High School, first class, to graduates of the State University or equivalent, including at least six half year courses in education.

Concerning the effect of the law of 1913, Fields says:

The law of 1913 marks a decided step in advance in certification. The state became the unit, and the great variations in standards which existed from county to county ceased, or at least theoretically so. This does not mean that the plan was not abused, however. Traditions exist to the effect that county superintendents opened the questions before the examination and coached their teachers upon the questions. It is reported, also, that one state superintendent was so false to his trust that he bestowed permanent state certificates as political favors upon the sons and daughters of his friends. But in general the direction of the movement was forward. This law also marks the general adoption of professional training as a basis for certification.¹

In 1917, two changes were made in the certification law. Both were occasioned by the scarcity of teachers resulting from war time conditions. One act² provided that any teacher holding an elementary or high school certificate issued by the state superintendent, with an average of 85 or more, should be exempt from further examinations, provided he did not discontinue teaching for more than three years. The other act³ created teacher training in high schools. It specified that all graduates of first-class high schools who completed one unit of professional work as prescribed by the State Board of Education for high schools, and who otherwise met the requirements of the law, should

¹Frank Fields, "The Evolution of Teacher Training and Certification as a Function of State Education in Tennessee," pp. 198-199. Ph.D. thesis, New York University, 1930.

²Acts of 1917, chap. 141.

³Acts of 1917, chap. 130.

be entitled to certificates to teach for one year in the county in which they were graduated.

The aftermath of the World War, as well as the conditions during the War, led to changes in the laws concerning the qualifications of teachers. Laws against aliens teaching in the public schools were passed. The first of these, enacted in 1919, declared that all persons employed in a professional capacity in the public schools of the state must have filed applications for citizenship and that the final papers must be obtained by the year 1925.¹ This was a relatively reasonable provision, but it did not satisfy the requirement of "one hundred per cent Americanism," and the following law was enacted:

That it shall be unlawful for the trustees of the University of Tennessee, the State Board of Education, or any county or city board of education or any other person to employ any superintendent, principal, teacher, tutor, supervisor, or other person to have in any way the custody and care of students of the public educational institutions of this state who is not a citizen of the United States of America; and it is further provided that no person shall be employed to teach or have custody of white pupils except persons of the Caucasian race who were born in the United States and whose parents could speak the English language and who themselves have spoken the English language since childhood.²

This law is still on the statute books, though it is well known that it is not always enforced.

Probably still more unfortunate, from the standpoint of good schools, was the series of post-war laws extending the certificates of ex-service men. The first of these, passed in 1921,³ merely provided for the renewal of whatever type of certificate the ex-service man held at the time of his enlistment. A series of such acts followed. The climax came in 1931, with the enactment of the following provision:

That the duration of all state and county teachers certificates which were in force before or during the world war, and held by ex-service persons of said war, is hereby extended for the duration of their natural life from and after November 11, 1918, and that all county certificates shall become state certificates.⁴

¹Acts of 1919, chap. 40.

²Acts of 1925, chap. 115.

³Acts of 1921, chap. 139.

⁴Acts of 1931, 1st extra sess., chap. 19.

It is easy to sympathize with the legislators' desire to reward men who had served their country in time of war, but the reward provided in this law seems inappropriate to those who believe that one of the highest responsibilities of a state is to provide trained teachers for its public schools. Perhaps a small appropriation to be used in defraying the expenses of ex-service men who desired to prepare themselves for expert service as teachers would have been in harmony with commendable public policy.

Teacher certification under the law of 1925.- The general law of 1925¹ is the school law of the state today in respect to the certification of teachers. Its provisions in regard to certificates for elementary and high school teachers are outlined below. Both professional and examination certificates are included.

Certification of supervisors and county superintendents under the law of 1925 will be described in a later section.

I. Elementary certificates

- a. A limited training certificate valid for one year in elementary schools (of the county in which the student graduated) issued to a graduate of an approved high school who has completed one unit of professional work approved by the State Department of Education. (While this certificate is still legal, it is not issued because the State Board of Education will not approve courses in education in high schools.)
- b. A limited training certificate valid for a period of one year in the elementary schools of any county in the state, issued to the applicant who is a graduate of an approved high school in this state, and has completed one quarter of work, including three quarter hours in education, in a state or approved college.
- c. A professional certificate valid for a period of four years, issued to the applicant for the position of teacher in the elementary schools who has completed at least three quarters of work in a state or approved college and who has had at least nine quarter hours in methods and management of elementary schools.
- d. A permanent professional certificate, issued to the applicant for the position of teacher in elementary schools who has completed a two-year curriculum for teachers in a state or approved college, and who has had at least eighteen quarter hours in education.

¹Acts of 1925, chap. 115.

II. High school certificates

- a. A professional certificate valid for a period of four years, issued to the applicant for the position of teacher in a two-year high school who has completed at least six quarters of work in a state or approved college and who has had at least eighteen quarter hours in education.
- b. A permanent professional certificate, issued to the applicant for the position of high school teacher who is a graduate of a state or approved college and who has completed at least twenty-seven hours in education, as prescribed by the State Commissioner and State Board of Education. No applicant shall be licensed to teach any subject in which he or she has a credit of less than eighteen quarter hours.

Examination certificates for teachers are as follows:

I. Elementary certificates

A certificate valid in any county in the state for a period of four years, issued to the applicant for the position of teacher in the elementary schools who has passed a satisfactory examination on all subjects (taught in the elementary school) and such other subjects as the State Commissioner of Education may prescribe.

II. High school certificates

A certificate valid for a period of four years, authorizing the applicant to teach only the subjects covered by the examination, issued to the applicant for the position of high school teacher who has passed a satisfactory examination on the subjects prescribed by the State Board of Education.

All certificates not valid for life are renewable for the period of the original certificate on successful experience and the completion of one quarter of work of at least twelve quarter hours, three hours of which shall be in education, in an approved institution.

The certification of administrative and supervisory officers.— The certification of school administrative officers developed much later than did the certification of teachers. For example, the only provision in the general school law of 1873¹ concerning the qualifications of a county superintendent is that he "shall be a person of literary and scientific attainments, and, when practical, of skill and experience in the art of teaching."

¹Acts of 1873, chap. 25.

This legal requirement, since there was absolutely no administrative machinery to enforce it, naturally had little effect. In practice, the county court elected whom it pleased. The result was that the man charged by law with the responsibility of certifying teachers might himself be a person of very limited education - and sometimes was, if we are to judge by the stories that have come down from that time.

In 1895 the county superintendent was first required by law to possess a certificate. In that year it was provided:

That on the first Monday in October preceding each biennial election for county superintendent of schools, and at any other date or dates fixed by the State Board of Education, each applicant for said office shall undergo a public examination at the county site of the county in which he or she is an applicant, to be conducted by a commission of three residents of the county, said commission to be previously appointed by the County Court, and to be citizens who, by education and experience, are most eminently qualified to conduct said examination, the same to be held by the State Board of Education under such rules and regulations as said board may prescribe.¹

Only four years after the passage of the certification law, exemptions from the examinations in certain cases were provided:

That those who have been previously examined or may hereafter be examined under the regulations of the State Board of Education, and having attained 90 per cent in general average, and not falling below 70 per cent in any study, shall be exempt from said examination so long as they continue in the public school work.²

In 1909, the requirement was added that the applicant must furnish evidence as to his moral character. In 1911, further exemptions from the examinations were made, this time more specifically:

That those who have been previously examined within the past two years, or may hereafter be examined under the regulations of the State Board of Education, and having attained 80 per cent in general average, and not falling below 70 per cent in any study, shall be exempt from said examination for a period of six years.³

The uniform certificate law of 1913 made no mention of certification of county superintendents. However, two significant changes were made in 1917. The first⁴ was that any person then

¹Acts of 1895, chap. 54.

²Acts of 1899, chap. 231.

³Acts of 1911, chap. 69.

⁴Acts of 1917, chap. 94.

holding a county superintendent's certificate should be eligible to the office in any county in the state. The second¹ was the beginning of the professional certificate for county superintendents:

A professional county superintendent's certificate shall be issued by the State Commissioner of Education to an applicant who is a graduate of the State University, and who has had at least twenty-four months actual teaching experience, either in the schoolroom or as supervisor of schools.

Although college work, plus teaching experience, could now be offered to obtain a certificate, college work was still not a legal prerequisite. It was made such for the first time in 1921:²

Before being eligible to take an examination to secure a certificate qualifying for the position of county superintendent, as required by Chapter 64 of the Acts of 1895, the applicant for such a certificate shall present to the local commission of examiners or the State Board of Education, satisfactory evidence that he has completed a course of study equivalent to the first two years of a standard college or normal school, and has had at least twenty-four months teaching experience.

The provisions concerning the certification of county superintendents which are in force today are those of the general school law of 1925. They are outlined below.

I. Professional certificate

A permanent professional certificate, issued to the applicant for the position of county superintendent who is a graduate of a state or approved college and who has completed at least twenty-seven quarter hours in education, as prescribed by the State Board of Education, and who has had at least twenty-four months of experience as teacher or supervisor.

II. Examination certificate

A certificate based on examination, valid in any county in the state for a period of four years, issued to the applicant for the position of county superintendent who has passed a satisfactory examination on such elementary and high school subjects as may be prescribed by the State Board of Education and in the general and instructional aspects of school administration, under the rules and regulations made

¹Ibid.

²Acts of 1921, chap. 119.

by the State Board of Education; provided, that the applicant for such certificate shall not be under twenty-four years of age and shall have had at least two years of credit from a state or approved college, and shall have had at least twenty-four months of successful experience as teacher or supervisor in the public schools of the state.

Such certificate may be renewed for a period of four years, provided the holder completes, during the duration of the certificate, one quarter's work of at least twelve quarter hours in a state or approved college.

The general law of 1925 also made the first provision in the history of certification in Tennessee for the granting of certificates to supervisors. No examination certificate is authorized. The requirements for a professional supervisor's certificate are very similar to those for a professional county superintendent's certificate. The applicant must be a graduate of a state or approved college who has completed at least twenty-seven quarter hours in education, including general and special methods, school supervision and administration; he must have had at least twenty-four months of experience in actual school work; he must be not less than twenty-four years of age.

An act of 1927¹ renewed the county superintendents' certificates of all former service men. Again this type of law hardly seems desirable to one who believes that the primary function of schools is to provide educational advantages for children rather than to provide employment for teachers.

There is evidence that the provisions of the general law concerning the certification of county superintendents have been evaded in individual cases. In the past there have been stories to the effect that politically clever applicants have secured certificates when they lacked legal qualification. How many of these allegations have been true is not known by the general public, though it is probably a safe guess that most of them have not been true.

An unfortunate type of evasion is the plan by which legislators secure the passage of private acts which nullify the provisions of the general law, usually for the benefit of an individual applicant for a certificate. A few examples of this practice will suffice.

A law of 1931,² applicable to three counties, according to the 1930 census, provides for the issuance of a certificate valid for twelve years to persons who satisfy certain prescriptions.

¹Acts of 1927, chap. 90.

²Acts of 1931, chap. 5.

A law of 1931,¹ applicable to one county, provides for the renewal of a county superintendent's certificate for twelve years, provided the holder has served as county superintendent of some county or counties in this state no less than four years during the life of the expired certificate.

A law of 1933² extends for a period of twelve years, without examination, the certificates of any persons who have

. . . . taught school and/or served as county superintendent of schools for at least forty years and who hold a twelve-year certificate obtained in the year 1920 or since that time and have served as county superintendent of schools at least four years during this time.

It is obvious that in this law a particular person was described with such care that it was unnecessary to designate a particular county.

In spite of the evasions which must be admitted, there can be no doubt that public sentiment in Tennessee is crystallizing in favor of high standards of preparation for teachers and administrative officers. In most counties a superintendent could not be elected who was not qualified to secure a certificate under the general law.

Regulations Concerning Certification

Legal basis for regulations.- An important phase of the development of certification in Tennessee has been the gradual acquirement by the chief state school officer and by the state board of education of more and more extensive powers to supplement the law of certification by making rules and regulations governing certification. The beginning of this process was the provision of the general law of 1873, which empowered the state superintendent "to prescribe the mode of examining and licensing school teachers and their necessary qualifications."

At the time, this clause meant little, because there was no administrative machinery through which it could be enforced. The state superintendent could issue advice and counsel, but the county superintendent, if it pleased him to do so, could ignore both. Even so, the clause signified the beginning of state regulation.

In 1875, the first teacher training institution in the state was established, and by the same law³ the State Board of

¹Ibid., chap. 101.

²Acts of 1933, chap. 152.

³Acts of 1875, chap. 90.

Education was created to control it. Moreover, by virtue of this control, the new state board indirectly acquired the power to regulate a particular phase of certification. Graduates who had honorably completed the prescribed course of study were to receive certificates, and the board was empowered to prescribe the course of study.

The first definite and expressed grant to the board of authority over a given phase of certification came in 1895 in connection with the law which first provided for certifying county superintendents.¹ This act empowered the state board:

To prescribe rules and regulations for the examination of applicants for county superintendents, to be held on the first Monday in October preceding each biennial election, and at any other date or dates fixed by the board.

Similar discretionary power over the certification of high school teachers was conferred upon the board by the general education bill of 1909:

All teachers in the public county high schools receiving aid from this high school fund under the provisions of this section of this act shall be examined and licensed under regulations prescribed by the State Board of Education, and said Board is hereby empowered and instructed to make rules and regulations for the examination and licensing of such teachers.²

The indirect powers of the board over professional certificates were also extended in 1909 by the establishment of the state normal schools, the vesting of their general management and control in the state board of education, and the provision that their graduates shall receive teachers certificates valid in any county for a period of four years.

The powers in regard to certification of both the state superintendent and the state board were extended by the uniform certification law of 1913.³ This act constituted the State Superintendent and the State Board of Education a Board of Examiners to prepare questions, conduct examinations, and otherwise assist in carrying out the provisions of the act. It specified that all rules and regulations concerning the giving of examinations should be given by this Board of Examiners. It declared that the state

¹Acts of 1895, chap. 54.

²Acts of 1909, chap. 264.

³Acts of 1913, chap. 40.

superintendent should act as chairman of the Board of Examiners and that all certificates should be issued by him.

By the same law, the power of placing colleges upon an approved list was conferred jointly upon the superintendent and the board:

In accordance with such uniform rules and regulations as may be adopted by the State Board of Education, the State Superintendent of Public Instruction may issue certificates without examination to graduates of other institutions of learning whose standards of admission and requirements for graduation are not lower than those of the state normal schools and the state university.

Authority over the conduct of certificate examinations was likewise made joint:

In conducting the examination, the local examining committee and the State Board of Examiners shall comply with the provisions of this act and the rules and regulations of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction and the State Board of Education.

Part of this provision is much like instructing the Board of Examiners to comply with its own regulations, since it was made up of the board of education and the superintendent.

By the reorganization bill of 1923¹ the State Department of Education was created. One division of this department is devoted to certification and is in charge of a supervisor of certification, who has considerable discretionary power in the administration of his office.

As has been stated, the present procedure in certification is governed chiefly by the provisions of the general education bill of 1925. A sketch of the division of powers under this act follows:

The state board and the commissioner have absolute authority to examine colleges and decide whether they should be placed on the approved list.

The state board prescribes the nature of the professional training necessary in order to obtain a professional certificate. It also makes the rules and regulations for issuing examination certificates to county superintendents and to high school teachers.

The state commissioner prescribes the subjects to be covered in the examination for a certificate valid in elementary schools. He issues permits to teach on the recommendation of county superintendents. He is empowered to make reciprocal agreements with the state superintendents of other states, whereby

¹Acts of 1923, chap. 27.

holders of certificates in those states may be issued Tennessee certificates, provided the minimum requirements in such other states are not less than they are in this state.

It is not clear to students of Tennessee educational administration whether the division of specific powers existing between the board and the commissioner was actually intended by the legislators or merely resulted from the chance wording of various laws. In practice, however, the commissioner eventually reports all important regulations to the board for approval, so that they are, in a sense, joint regulations.

Examples of regulations in the past.- Many examples might be cited illustrating how the regulatory and discretionary powers set forth in the above section have been exercised in the past. A few outstanding ones will, however, be sufficient for the present purpose:

The state university and a few private colleges were granted the privilege of issuing certificates to certain of their graduates.

Certificates were issued to persons who completed courses in the "state institutes." Certificates were classified according to rulings of the state board and of the commissioner.

Dates were set for examinations for certification. The plan for many years was to close each county and state institute with such an examination.

Teachers were required for many years to take examinations on State Reading Circle books.

CHAPTER V

THE IN-SERVICE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

An important aspect of the development of teaching as a profession concerns the organized efforts which have been made to train individuals for the work of teaching. These agencies may be classified into two groups: those which are designed primarily to benefit teachers already in service, and those whose function is primarily to prepare young people to enter the profession. The development of the in-service training of teachers in Tennessee is studied in the present chapter. In the chapter which follows attention is given to the development of the preparation of teachers as a regular function of educational institutions.

There were of course many capable teachers in Tennessee before the Civil War; generous tribute was often paid such teachers by their former pupils. But these capable teachers of the time attained their education in private institutions and through independent study. No definite steps were taken by the state before the war to provide for the education of teachers.

But immediately after the war there was a sudden growth of interest in teacher education. This interest, however, was directed almost entirely toward the development of plans for the training of teachers in service. There can be little doubt that this was the right approach to the problem at that time, with conditions in the state as they were. Certainly much good has been accomplished through teachers institutes, teachers libraries, vacation schools and teachers associations. But there seems to be some reason to believe that an over emphasis upon agencies for the training of teachers in service delayed the development of a comprehensive program for the preparation of teachers for service in the profession.

Teachers Institutes

Literally hundreds of pages in the reports of the state superintendents of Tennessee are devoted to the teachers institutes, which played an important part in teacher education from about 1875 to 1915. The name institute came to be applied to almost any sort of school gathering, hence it is not surprising that one reads in the reports of hundreds of institutes being held annually.

As early as the middle of the last century, the institute movement had been popularized in Rhode Island and Connecticut by Henry Barnard. But no record of the use of the term in Tennessee is found before the Civil War. The first record of institutes in the state appeared in 1869, in the report of Superintendent Eaton, who may have been himself largely responsible for their introduction into Tennessee. Included in this report are the programs of two of these early institutes, which are of interest because they give an indication of the kind of training which was attempted. At an institute held in Bedford county the topics discussed were: Criticism on English Grammar; Phrenology, a Science; Mind and Matter; Mathematics the only Exact Science and no Perfection Without Its Aid.¹ The program of an institute held in Davidson County the same year included these topics: Lecture on School Government; Drill in Gymnastics; Class in Reading; Drill in Elements of Music; Lecture on Primary Instruction.²

Local and county institutes.- From the accounts given in the various superintendents' reports, it is possible to distinguish three types of county institutes:

1. A short summer school, usually continuing from two to four weeks, terminating in an examination for certification.

2. A meeting held for a week or less during the summer and addressed either by speakers invited from elsewhere or by local speakers. Little or no formal instruction was attempted. In some cases, but not all, an examination for certification followed.

3. A meeting for only one day, while school was in session. Saturday was usually the day chosen for these meetings, which were conducted in much the same manner as the second type, described above. Such meetings were sometimes held monthly, sometimes intermittently.

Some of the institutes which were organized were called "normal schools," and the terms eventually came to be used almost interchangeably. Another name which was used rather frequently was "normal institute."

As early as 1883, the term "teachers association" which is almost universally used today, had obtained some recognition, for example:

Shelby County. Our teachers association which meets in Memphis the first Saturday each month is growing in members as well as interest.³

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1869, pp. 36-37.

²Ibid., pp. 37-38.

³Report of the State Superintendent, 1883, p. 128.

That both county and local institutes were held in at least one county as late as 1891 is shown by the following quotations:

Knox County. The normal institute for white teachers convened at Knoxville, in the public hall of the courthouse on July 13, 1891, lasting one week.

We have held quite a number of Institutes in the county for the teachers, Directors, and patrons of the schools, all of which were well attended.¹

Varying in length from one day to a month, and called by the variety of names which has been indicated, hundreds of these teachers' institutes were held each year. They were pleasant social occasions, and no doubt had some inspirational value as well, but they gave teachers little actual training. Their organization and methods underwent no very significant change until passage of the general education law of 1909.

The law of 1909 provided for the establishment of state normal schools. From that time on, the abandonment of county institutes, in the form which had been in use for more than thirty-five years, was inevitable. That the state's educational leaders did not realize the fact, however, is shown by a provision in the law of 1909 that teachers in the normal schools should act as instructors in the various county institutes. It is learned from the early reports of the normal schools to the state superintendent that this requirement was faithfully obeyed.

In 1913 the report of the state superintendent gives the following figures in regard to county institutes: counties which held no institutes, 7; counties with institutes lasting five days or less, 27; counties with institutes lasting six to nine days, 20; counties with institutes lasting from ten to nineteen days, 30; counties with institutes lasting from twenty to twenty-nine days, 2; counties with institutes lasting thirty days, 3.

In 1913 the first state certificate law was passed, transferring the certificating function from the county superintendent to the state superintendent and providing for state examinations. The effect on county institutes was immediate: they became short periods of intensive drill in preparation for the state examinations. It is interesting to note that at about the same time it became a common practice for teachers to attend the normal schools for two or three weeks in the summer for the same purpose - the only difference being that the period of "cramming" was a little less brief and frenetic.

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1891, pp. 74-75.

Gradually, with the spread of high schools and the increase of professional teacher training, the type of certification changed from examination certificates to professional certificates. The latter type is based on college credits rather than on the state examinations. With this change, the county institute as a period of preparation for the examinations has entirely disappeared. In many counties summer institutes are no longer held, partly because so many teachers are away attending summer schools. In other counties they are held, but their duration is limited to two or three days.

State institutes.- Institutes reached their most spectacular form in those meetings which, because they were supervised by the state superintendent, were called "State Institutes," although they were also known by various names, such as, District Institutes, Congressional Institutes, State Peabody Institutes, Peabody Institutes, State Normals, and State Normal Institutes. State Institutes have not been held for twenty years and are now of historical interest only.

A small tuition fee was sometimes charged for state institutes. Their chief support, however, came from contributions and from grants made by the Peabody Fund. Eventually small appropriations were also made by the legislature.

The first state institutes were held in 1874. The following account of these early meetings is taken from a state superintendent's report:

The first two state institutes in Tennessee were held on the same day, July 20, 1874; one at Shelbyville and one at Cleveland. During the summer of 1874, ten institutes were held in the State. The total attendance was estimated at 600 teachers and 5000 citizens. The large attendance of citizens in contrast with the small attendance of teachers is a sufficient testimony to their popular character. One effect of these institutes was to save the school law from repeal at the next session of the legislature. Another effect was the improvement of the teachers.¹

The following interesting item is quoted from the Report for 1878:

At the two institutes held at Union City and Brownsville, the teachers present also enjoyed the great privilege of hearing lectures on "The Readjustment of Labor" and on "Graded Schools," from the distinguished Superintendent of St. Louis Schools, Hon. W.T. Harris, who came to mingle with his brother teachers of Tennessee on these interesting occasions by special invitation.²

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1891, pp. 53-54.

²Report of the State Superintendent, 1878, pp. 19-20.

The institute movement outdid itself in 1894, when an institute for institute conductors was held at Peabody College in Nashville for two weeks, beginning June 11. At the close of the institute, sixteen persons, from an enrollment of forty-six, were enrolled as conductors of county institutes and sent to various counties of the state.¹

By 1900, the plan in operation was to hold six state institutes for the whites and three for the colored, equally distributed among the three grand divisions of the state.² The standard state institute lasted for four weeks and terminated with an examination for certification.

That there was still enthusiastic support for the state institute movement as late as 1907 and 1908 is shown by the following quotation, taken from the state superintendent's report for those years.

The legislature for a number of years has appropriated the sum of \$5000 for the aid of State and County Institute work. The wisdom of this appropriation is clearly apparent when we consider that a large number of public school teachers have had no professional training, and in many cases no academic instruction in advance of that which they are expected to impart. The State Institutes have been remarkably well attended, the enrollment for the past two years having reached more than 1800 each year. Add to this the number attending county institutes that received state aid and it will be seen that nearly one third of the teaching force of the State was reached through this fund.³

It is evident that the state institute was in reality nothing more than a short summer school, covering elementary and secondary school subjects and occasionally a brief course in methodology. Although the instruction was frequently given by very capable men, the time was too short and the work too disjointed for the institute really to accomplish the function of the normal school. The lack of continuity in the work, the going over and over the same ground every year, was a fatal weakness. With the establishment of state normal schools in 1909, the elaborate system of state institutes was doomed to extinction, for the only function which it served was served better by the normal schools. From that time state institutes gradually declined. Eleven institutes, eight for white teachers and three for colored teachers were held in 1911. In 1912, there remained only five

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1894, pp. 19-20.

²Report of the State Superintendent, 1900, p. 107.

³Report of the State Superintendent, 1907-08, pp. 39-40.

institutes for white teachers and two for colored teachers.

A peculiar attempt at a reversion to type may be seen in this notation in the superintendent's report for 1911-12:

Another feature of the institutes of 1912 was the adult school. Attempts were made to induce adults to attend lectures on topics of general interest.¹

It will be remembered that in the early days institutes were largely attended by the public. Here is found the institute in its moribund days going back to its previous form in the effort to find a useful function to serve.

The attempt, however, was not successful. In 1913, seven institutes were held, and in 1914, four.² After 1914, there is no further record of state institutes in Tennessee.

Teachers Libraries

The State Reading Circle.- In 1885, under the sponsorship of the State Teachers Association, another interesting experiment in the training of teachers in service came into being. The State Reading Circle was an attempt to induce teachers to give themselves a certain amount of training by reading a small selected list of professional books every year. At the outset the Reading Circle was, at least nominally, under the control of the State Teachers Association. Eventually, however, the State Board of Education assumed control.

The reading circle idea, however, did not meet with wide and immediate adoption, as is shown by the following statement from the superintendent's report for 1891:

These associations. . . . have not been established so generally or so thoroughly as their importance demands. In Bedford and Knox Counties they have been in successful operation for several years and have accomplished useful results

Through the active exertions of several of our best superintendents, aided by the intelligent zeal of the teachers and friends of education, reading circles and libraries have been organized in a few other counties and cities. It is a source of regret that a complete list cannot be presented.³

In 1906, the superintendent's report stated:

The Public School Officers Association at its annual meeting in January, 1906, authorized the State Superintendent

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1911-12, p. 432.

²Report of the State Superintendent, 1913-14, p. 259.

³Report of the State Superintendent, 1891, pp. 18-19.

to appoint a committee to organize and select a course of study for a State Teachers' Reading Circle.¹

It appears that the control of this movement had passed from the State Teachers Association to the Public School Officers Association. Although the latter association saw fit to vest the power of appointment in the state superintendent in the first instance, it was evidently the understanding that his selections were not to be final, for the superintendent in his report lists his appointees and then adds: "The above will constitute the Board of Managers until changed by the Public School Officers Association."²

Until this time the state reading circle had been organized on a purely voluntary basis. Now, however, it was determined to make the reading compulsory for the teachers, and the following announcement was made by the state superintendent in his report for 1906:

Superintendents and teachers are hereby notified that after January 1, 1907, all teachers will be required to pass an examination on the above books before being granted certificates.

Superintendents will at once organize their teachers into an association and arrange for monthly meetings for review and discussion on the above works. I suggest that you make these subjects the principal work of your teachers' association. Teachers should purchase the books and begin their study at once.³

During the next few years the state reading circle continued to follow much the same plan. For the year 1909-10, for example, the following course of study was announced: For Primary Teachers, Niver's School History of England, Thompkin's School for Primary Teachers; for Secondary Teachers, Parkman's LaSalle and the Discovery of the Great West, Salisbury's Theory of Thinking.⁴

The state superintendent declared:

We take this method of notifying superintendents and teachers that all public school teachers will be required to pass an examination on the above books before receiving a license to teach in the public schools of the state.⁵

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1906, p. 557.

²Ibid.

³Ibid., p. 558.

⁴Report of the State Superintendent, 1909-10, p. 655.

⁵Ibid., p. 655.

Undoubtedly the idea behind the creation of the state reading circle was a good one; there is no question but that the reading of good books on teaching is a very important method by which teachers in service can improve themselves in the practice of their profession. There were two reasons, however, why the state reading circle could not prove permanently successful; its plan of administration was too formal and cumbersome; and the adoption of the system of compelling the teachers to buy and read particular books and pass an examination on them could only result in making the teachers feel harassed rather than benefitted by the circle's activities.

By 1914, the year in which the state institute passed out of existence, the state reading circle was also about ready to cease functioning. That the state superintendent either did not realize this or was pleading against it is shown by statements in his report for 1913-14, in which, after listing the course of study selected for the following year, he said:

We believe these are the best Reading Circle Books Tennessee has yet had. And they ought to be - each year should show an improvement. The price is reasonable.¹

After 1914, no further record is found of the state reading circle.

County and local teachers libraries.- The following statement, taken from the state superintendent's report for 1893, records the opening stages of an important movement for the training of Tennessee teachers in service.

Many counties have organized teachers libraries and are making rapid progress. In the counties where libraries have been established and where the teachers have taken advantage of the same, the schools are rapidly coming to the front.²

For some years after 1893, the movement steadily gained ground, the number of teachers libraries reported by the superintendent being larger almost every year, increasing from 22 in 1893 to 335 in 1909.

An abrupt drop in the total number of teachers libraries reported occurs after 1909. In 1911, the number reported was only 136; in 1912, 113; in 1913, 173; and in 1914, 149. No such drop after 1909, however, is noted in the figures which represent the total number of volumes in teachers libraries. In 1909, the number of volumes reported was 17,309; in 1910, 18,194, in 1911, 22,244; in 1912, 21,525; in 1913, 20,783; in 1914, 26,041.

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1913-14, p. 349.

²Report of the State Superintendent, 1893, p. 22.

The exact meaning of these figures is not clear because it is not known what kinds of libraries were reported or how regularly they were reported. The inconsistency between the figures in regard to number of libraries and number of volumes suggests that the movement may have been growing after 1909, but that the smaller libraries were no longer reported or were being consolidated into larger libraries which served a greater number of teachers.

After 1914, data concerning the number and size of teachers libraries are no longer available. This probably means merely that after that date the state superintendent no longer required this information in reports submitted to his office. Also it indicates that the movement was no longer sponsored by the state superintendent.

Vacation Schools

Any student of the historical development of teacher education in Tennessee is at once impressed with the prominent part which has been played by vacation schools. To teach during the school term and then go to school during vacation has been a familiar and time honored program for public school teachers.

Of course much good has been accomplished by vacation schools. They have made it possible for many people to secure a certain amount of higher education who might have otherwise been denied its advantages. It will never be known how many professionally minded teachers have been enabled by frugal living to save enough out of their meagre salaries to pay their expenses in summer school. Undoubtedly most of these teachers have gone back to their work better prepared to render effective service.

But there seems to be every reason to believe that vacation schools for teachers in service, especially on the undergraduate level, will play a much less prominent part in the program of teacher education in the future. For one thing, the time is probably not distant when an applicant for a teaching position will have to possess an undergraduate degree before he can hope to secure appointment.

Early vacation schools: The University of Tennessee.- A summer normal school was held at the University of Tennessee in the summer of 1880. The report of its director describes its opening as follows:

The school was opened according to announcement at 8 o'clock a.m. on Monday, the 5th of July, and continued four weeks with daily sessions of four hours length. On the first day about fifty teachers were enrolled but no regular work was done. The schedule of future work was, however,

elaborated and posted, duties were also allotted to those who were to take the part of instruction, and lessons were assigned to the school.

The number of teachers in attendance rapidly increased until it reached about one hundred, at which it stood throughout the entire session.¹

This school, however, was on the borderline between an institute and a true vacation school. The first vacation school for teachers which was definitely a part of the scheduled program for the school year (rather than an institute) was announced as follows in the University of Tennessee for the year 1889-90:

There are a large number of young men in Tennessee who earn the means with which to secure a higher education by teaching in the common schools. The schools begin in the late summer or fall and continue until January or February. Thus, a large number of these teachers apply at the University of Tennessee during the first half of each year. Since these persons cannot attend college for a full session, the University of Tennessee has been constrained to arrange a special course of study for them. This course will begin the second Thursday in February, and extend to the second Wednesday in June.

This is not a normal course of instruction. Our teachers have already in the various normal schools, teachers' institutes and State Normal College, opportunities for that kind of training. The object of the University is to promote higher education. The teachers who come to us want opportunities for improving their general education.²

Every person entering the "teachers' course" was required to take one course in mathematics, one in English, literature or philosophy, one language and one science. Free tuition was provided for persons with certificates showing that they had taught ten months in a public or private school in the state.

The course of study extends over two terms of five months each. A certificate, showing what classes were taken will be given to those who finish the course to the satisfaction of the faculty. The State Board will issue Teachers' Certificates to students, taking this course, and found qualified in the opinion of the faculty.³

In 1893-94 the vacation school lasting from January until June was dropped entirely, and in its place a course designed for the training of teachers was inserted in the regular curriculum of the university. This course was discontinued in 1900,

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1880, p. 36.

²Register of the University of Tennessee, 1889-90, p. 43.

³Ibid.

and no work in professional education was offered from 1900 to 1902.

In the latter year the Summer School of the South was organized, which was the first regular summer vacation school for the training of teachers in service to be offered at the University of Tennessee.

Early vacation schools: Peabody College.- Peabody College likewise held its first summer vacation school for teachers in 1902 and reported to the state superintendent as follows concerning its first session:

To keep pace with other institutions of learning, and especially to offer instruction to teachers who cannot attend the winter session of the colleges, it was deemed advisable to hold a six weeks summer session at the College. The course of study included Philosophy and Pedagogy, Mathematics, Science, English, Latin, American History, General History. The session opened on June 16 and closed on July 26, registering 448 students, a majority of whom were teachers. No charge whatever was made this year, and it is hoped that the success of this school will justify its being made permanent.¹

The report of 1903 declared the experiment so successful

. . . that it pointed out the means of extending the usefulness of the college. The summer term has, therefore, been made a regular term of the college, and affords the teachers of the South an opportunity by attending for a course of years, to accomplish all the work required for the degree of Licentiate of Instruction.²

The opening enrollment of 448 in the summer of 1902 was the largest which the Peabody Summer School had during the nine years of its existence. The enrollments were as follows: for 1902, 448; for 1903, missing; for 1904, 149; for 1905, 239; for 1906, 264; for 1907, 310; for 1908, 377; for 1909, 376; for 1910, 327.

Two factors contributed toward limiting the enrollment at Peabody College to a relatively small number: the high entrance requirements excluded many who might otherwise have attended; then the Summer School of the South, which had no entrance requirements, was attracting thousands each year and thus afforded Peabody very serious competition.

Early vacation schools: The Summer School of the South.- The record of the now famous Summer School of the South is inseparably connected with the career of its founder, Dr. P.P. Claxton.

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1902, p. 232.

²Report of the State Superintendent, 1903, p. 288.

According to the best information available, Dr. Claxton conceived, organized, promoted, and administered this extraordinary school, which held its first session at the University of Tennessee in Knoxville in the summer of 1902.

The following account appeared in the report of the state superintendent for 1902:

The first session of the Summer School of the South was held at the University of Tennessee from June 19 to July 31. The Board of Trustees of the University gave the use of their buildings and grounds, with water, gas, electricity, lights, and the services of such janitors as they had employed for this time.

The eighty or more courses offered were grouped under the following heads:

1. Common school subjects and methods
2. High school and college subjects
3. Department of Psychology and Pedagogy.

In addition to the regular classes in the courses outlined, some 30 popular lectures were given by leading educators of the South and a number from the North and by members of the faculty of the school.¹

Dr. G. Stanley Hall said of the Summer School of the South:

It is the largest one in the world. In numbers and interest it has never been surpassed. From what observation I have been able to give the class work, the character of the work being done is of the best. I think that the greatest impression made upon me, next to the number, is the social quality of the students. This means more than you can possibly appreciate. This school is sure to have a tremendous influence upon Southern Civilization.²

An almost evangelistic fervor marked the session of 1902:

Perhaps the most important and interesting general feature of the school was the Educational Campaigners' Convention on July 4-5. The enthusiasm reached its height on the afternoon of July 4, when the students held a great patriotic demonstration in behalf of better education in the Southern States. A committee of the representatives of the student body had been appointed some days before to draw up a declaration of principles with regard to the educational needs of the South. . . .³

The reports of the state superintendent for 1903, 1904, 1905, and 1906 carried further glowing accounts of the continued

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1902, p. 219.

²Ibid., p. 226.

³Ibid., p. 221.

success of the Summer School of the South. After 1906 no further mention of it appeared in the reports for several years. Probably the school was now so well established that it was more or less taken for granted.

The Summer School of the South might almost be said to have been a part of the educational campaigns of 1903-1912, which have already been sketched briefly in Chapter II. In both Dr. P.P. Claxton was the undisputed leader. The departure of Claxton from Tennessee in 1911 to fill the position of United States Commissioner of Education, to which he was appointed by President Taft, marked the beginning of the decline of both movements. With the end of these two movements the era of emotional fervor for educational reform gave way to a period of slow growth in consolidation of gains. The new state normal schools opened their doors in 1911 and 1912. The new George Peabody College for Teachers opened in the summer of 1914.

Statistics concerning enrollment in the Summer School of the South are presented in Table XVI. These data show the general trend of its development.

TABLE XVI
YEARLY ENROLLMENTS IN THE SUMMER SCHOOL
OF THE SOUTH, 1902-1918

Year	Enrollment	Year	Enrollment
1902	2019	1909	2112
1903	2150	1911	2462
1904	1312	1912	2408
1905	1841	1913	2120
1906	1808	1917	1407
1907	2000	1918	1290

It will be noted that the Summer School of the South reached its peak enrollment in 1911, the last year of Dr. Claxton's administration. In 1912, control of the school was taken over by the university trustees, and the new policy was adopted of offering some courses for university credit; previously no academic credit whatever had been given in any of the courses. The school continued to operate under the old name until 1918. During this time, the proportion of credit courses and of students attending for credit increased continually. Hence when the summer school closed in 1918 and reopened in 1921 as the regular summer session of the University of Tennessee, no radical reorganization was necessary; the transformation was already

practically complete.

It is, of course, impossible to say exactly what was the value and significance of the Summer School of the South. There seems to be every reason, however, to believe that it contributed, in a large measure, toward the revival of learning in the Southern States, which took place immediately after the turning of the century.

Early vacation schools: The state normal schools.- The summer vacation school was from the beginning an important part of the program of the state normal schools which were established under provisions of the General School Law of 1909, as the following data on early student enrollments in these schools clearly show:

East Tennessee Normal School: in 1911-12 (the opening year), regular session, 236; summer session, 339. In 1912-13, regular session, 325; summer session, 484; In 1913-14, regular session, 410; summer session, 617. In 1921-22, regular session, 513; summer session, 722.

Middle Tennessee Normal School: in 1911-12 (the opening year), regular session, 250; summer session, 497. In 1912-13, regular session, 318; summer session, 485. In 1913-14, regular session, 474; summer session, 544. In 1921-22, regular session, 516, summer session, 1034.

West Tennessee Normal School: in 1912-13 (the opening year), regular session, 357; summer session, 605. In 1913-14, regular session 402; summer session, 605. In 1921-22, regular session, 521; summer session, 881.

The summer term, which was at first only six weeks, was later extended to twelve weeks. The summer term was gradually transformed into the summer quarter and came to be considered as a regular part of the school year. At present, with few exceptions the same courses are offered in the summer as in the regular session.

Vacation schools in recent years.- In the section of the chapter devoted to the Summer School of the South, it has already been noted that this school closed in 1918, and that, after a two-year interval in which no sessions were held, the present summer school of the University of Tennessee was opened in 1921. In 1922 the name was changed to "Summer Session," and in 1929 to "Summer Quarter," thus completing the evolution of the old Summer School of the South into a regular part of the University.

All the other state colleges have maintained summer schools regularly since the time they were established. These include the three state teachers colleges, discussed above, the state college for negroes, established in 1912, the Tennessee Polytechnic

Institute, established in 1915, and the Austin Peay State Normal School and the University of Tennessee Junior College, both established in 1927.

No study was made in the present investigation of the history of summer schools in private institutions.

In addition to the regular summer schools, several Tennessee colleges hold what is known as the "Spring Term." This is a plan by which students, mainly teachers in service, are allowed to enter school at the middle of the spring quarter and complete courses in the remaining six weeks of the school year. Usually the courses are designed for spring term students and so arranged as to be completed in the six weeks. In some cases, students are permitted to enter in the middle of a regular twelve-weeks course. The latter practice, however, is in bad repute among college administrators, who explain that it is permitted only under exceptional circumstances.

Teachers Associations

One organization for the training of teachers in service which seems to have a very definite value is the teachers association. In its various forms the teachers association is able to provide programs which are instructive as well as entertaining, to inspire school people with a renewed interest in their work and a new conviction of its vital importance, and to formulate and support policies with regard to educational problems. Something of the possibilities of the policy-shaping function of teachers associations can be seen in the enormous influence which the National Education Association has had over public education in the nation at large. Local, regional, and state associations can also make valuable contributions in the areas which they serve, as such associations in Tennessee have demonstrated on more than one occasion.

Local associations.- It is not possible to say when the first local teachers association was organized in Tennessee. Attention has already been called to the "teacher association" in Shelby county which was reported to the state superintendent in 1883 (page 90).

It is known that many county superintendents have always made it a practice to have at least an occasional Saturday meeting of their teachers. Sometimes these meetings were called "institutes."

With the advent of good roads, the holding of these Saturday meetings has become a much more common practice. In many counties meetings are held monthly.

In a number of the counties the teachers have organized themselves into a county teachers association. The more aggressive of these associations seek to become policy forming organizations with the avowed purpose of influencing school administration in the county.

Regional associations: East Tennessee Educational Association.- The East Tennessee Educational Association is perhaps one of the outstanding organizations of its kind in America. The following excerpt from an article by the executive secretary of the association, Dean D. S. Burleson of the State Teachers College at Johnson City, gives a brief sketch of the scope and history of the organization:

The East Tennessee Education Association dates back to the year 1906 under its present organization. By 1912 it had a membership of 225, with a total balance of \$15.78. By the April meeting, 1915, it reached a total membership of 591. The total expenditure for that year amounted to \$197.33. It had one visiting speaker to whom it paid a flat fee of \$30.00. At that time there were only six departments, namely, Superintendents, Primary, Intermediate, High School, College, and Home Economics.

At the April, 1916, meeting, it was decided to reorganize the Association; the time of meeting was changed from the spring to the fall, and Knoxville was decided upon as a permanent place of meeting, while the hearty and sympathetic cooperation of superintendents was sought. The goal set for the October meeting was a membership of 1000, but the total registration was far in advance of expectations, being over 1600. The enthusiasm over the progress during the short time was tremendous and was one of the important factors leading to the subsequent development of the Association. Since 1916 it has grown by leaps and bounds. Almost 6000 attended the 1933 meeting, while twenty-one distinguished speakers from abroad appeared on the program. It is now an incorporated institution. The number of departments has grown to twenty-two, with an application for more. The membership for the past two years has been around 6000. The total expenditure last year amounted to over \$5000.00. There has never been a deficit nor a lack of a healthy balance of receipts over expenditures for any year since the reorganization in 1916. It can now justly claim to be one of the largest and most successful educational associations in this country.¹

Regional associations: Middle Tennessee Educational Association.- Meetings of the Middle Tennessee Educational Association were held annually from 1908 to 1918, inclusive. After 1918 the organization ceased to function and there have been no further meetings of the association.

¹The Tennessee Teacher, Vol. 1, No. 2 (March, 1934), p. 28.

The reason the Middle Tennessee Educational Association passed out of existence was a practical one: the State Teachers Association holds its annual meetings in Nashville in Middle Tennessee, and teachers are unwilling to bear the expense of attending two large meetings a year; hence the smaller organization was abandoned.

Regional associations: West Tennessee Teachers Association.- In the report of the state superintendent for 1914, the following item appears:

In March, 1914, the West Tennessee Teachers Association held a meeting - the first one in several years - at the Normal School, at which time approximately a thousand teachers from every county in this section of the state were present.¹

Like the association in East Tennessee, the West Tennessee Teachers Association has not experienced the handicap of being forced to compete with the State Teachers Association for its attendance, as the Middle Tennessee association has had to do. Although it has not experienced a success altogether equal to that of the East Tennessee Educational Association, the West Tennessee Association has enjoyed steady growth. Its meetings, held annually in Memphis, are well attended, and persons of national reputation appear on the program yearly.

State associations: Public School Officers Association.- The Public School Officers Association is a state organization of administrative officials in Tennessee public schools, similar in its functions to the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association. The state superintendent in his report for 1887 described its origin as follows:

During the month of November, 1887, I called a convention of county superintendents to meet in the city of Nashville on December 6. This convention met and was in session two days. I regard this as the most important convention of educators ever held in this state.

A permanent organization was effected, and in the future the county and city superintendents will meet annually in the city of Nashville on the second Tuesday of December.¹

In 1888, at the second meeting of the organization, the "Public School Officers Association of Tennessee" was chosen as the official name, and a constitution and by-laws were adopted. Classroom teachers were made eligible for membership, although the organization was obviously not designed for them. As a matter

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1913-14, p. 219.

²Report of the State Superintendent, 1887, p. 71

of fact, few classroom teachers ever sought membership, and the personnel of the association has remained, on the whole, exactly what the name implies.

The association has met annually every year since its founding in 1887. With the exception of the meeting of 1890, which was held in Knoxville, all of the meetings have been at Nashville. In 1899, the time of meeting was changed from December to January in order that the meetings might take place while the state legislature, which convenes in January of odd-numbered years, was in session. All subsequent meetings have been held in January.

State associations: Tennessee State Teachers Association.-

The following account of the founding of the State Teachers Association was written by General John H. Eaton, state superintendent under the Reconstruction government in Tennessee.

The State Association of Teachers was organized in July, 1865, or two years before this office was opened, and had annual meetings, able addresses, and discussions, and had done much in the right direction and manner to arouse public attention and fix it upon this great necessity. They had taken a stand, first, in favor of free schools; secondly, in favor of guarding and honoring the profession of teaching; and thirdly, in behalf of Normal Schools.¹

Honorable W. G. Brownlow, Reconstruction Governor of Tennessee, addressed a communication to the President of the State Teachers Association under date of November 14, 1867, praising and encouraging the association's work. Among other things he said:

Should you direct the public sentiments of our State to a successful and early competition in educational advancement with the best systems of the country, you may be sure the people will rise up to call you blessed, and your liberal pecuniary compensation will be a matter of course.²

During these opening years of the history of the State Teachers Association, the need of a liberal program such as it sponsored was very real. On December 30, 1868, the Reverend Barnas Sears, Agent of the Peabody Fund, told a meeting of the Association:

It is surprising to find so few schools in the South. I have visited eleven states, and I regret to say that not one third of the children are being educated.³

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1869, p. 85.

²Ibid., p. 61.

³Report of the State Superintendent, 1869, Appendix, p.

In 1873, the general school law was enacted, and in his report of the year following, the state superintendent addressed the following remarks to the Governor of Tennessee:

A valuable and entirely voluntary auxiliary to our school system has been the State Teachers Association, an organization of friends of education, designed to aid all movements looking to the more general education of our people. From this association under your excellency's recommendation, originally sprang our present school law. Aside from the various measures of practical importance that owe their protection to this body, its meetings have had the very perceptible effect of awakening the public mind to a thoughtful consideration of the great need of further educational advantages, and of encouraging school officers to a more cheerful devotion to the duties devolved upon them.¹

The necessity for vigorous and aggressive action on the part of the association in behalf of public schools was, however, by no means ended with the passage of the law of 1873. The law was no sooner enacted than reactionary elements began to agitate for its repeal. The State Teachers Association presented an organized opposition to this movement and, on January 31, 1877, addressed to the General Assembly the following memorandum protesting against any destructive interference with the existing school laws:

We would earnestly urge that the school law shall, in all its essential features, be let alone. Especially would we protest against its being emasculated and rendered practically inoperative by abolishing either or both of the offices of state and county superintendent, or to legislation that will lead to their being filled by incompetents.²

The school law was not repealed, and the offices of county and state superintendent were not abolished. It is not necessary to attempt to say how much of the credit for this victory should go to the State Teachers Association.

During its first thirty-odd years of existence the association rotated its meetings from place to place in the state. In 1899 and for several years thereafter, the meeting was held at the summer assembly grounds in Monteagle. Finally, however, it was determined that Nashville should be the permanent meeting place. The time of holding the meetings was changed from summer to winter.

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1874, p. 20.

²Report of the State Superintendent, 1877, pp. 69-70.

Within recent years there has been a growing conviction among friends of public education in Tennessee that all was not well with the State Teachers Association. For some years past the association has seemed to have lost the dominant position of leadership which it enjoyed in earlier times.

Since the demise of the regional association in Middle Tennessee, those in the East and West have grown to enormous proportions. Teachers of these two sections tended to go to the meeting of their regional association but did not attend that of the state association. Comparatively few persons of either East or West Tennessee, except a few in important positions, ever attended a meeting of the State Teachers Association. The result was that the association became in reality merely a regional association for the majority of teachers of Middle Tennessee, and was a state association for only a few educational leaders and school politicians.

Another difficulty has been the fact that there has been no organic connection between the State Teachers Association and other educational organizations in the state. This factor alone has rendered it next to impossible for the school people of Tennessee to present a unified program for the consideration of the people of the state.

A program for the reorganization of the State Teachers Association has been vigorously launched within recent months. A discussion of this reorganization movement is presented in Chapter IX.

State associations: The Tennessee State Association of Teachers in Colored Schools.- The report of the state superintendent for 1895-96 contains the information that "The second annual meeting of the Tennessee Colored State Teachers Association was held in Chattanooga, June 10-12, 1896.¹ Apparently the organization has not had an uninterrupted existence, however, since the "twelfth annual session" was held in 1934.

The present Tennessee State Association of Teachers in Colored Schools is an enterprising organization with a paid membership of about 1,000. The membership fee of fifty cents a year includes a subscription to the official publication, the "Broadcaster" which was first published in 1929, and is issued four times a year. About three hundred dollars a year is appropriated for the publication of the magazine and the rest of the income is spent on programs and necessary administrative expenses. The resourceful program committee usually succeeds in securing a number of capable speakers at little or no cost. The association is undoubtedly providing an extraordinary service toward professionalizing teaching in the colored schools of Tennessee.

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1895-96, p. 243.

CHAPTER VI

THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS IN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

The present chapter, which concerns the development of the preparation of teachers as a part of the regular program of educational institutions, concludes the historical investigation of organized efforts to educate the teachers of Tennessee, which was introduced in Chapter V with a study of the agencies which have been developed for the training of teachers in service. It also completes the study of the development of teaching as a profession in Tennessee.

Early Attempts at Teacher Education

While in ante-bellum days teacher education was left to private initiative, there were those who believed the problem should be regarded as a question for public concern. Attention has already been called (Chapter III) to the eloquent address of Philip Lindsley on the importance of employing capable persons to teach the schools of the time; to the concern expressed by the first state superintendent, Robert H. McEwen, in 1839, over the dearth of qualified teachers; and to the efforts of educational institutions to induce youths of ability to enter teaching.

It is interesting to note that a determined effort was made in the legislative session of 1855-56 to authorize the creation of a state normal school, and that it was fifty-five years later before such a school was an established fact.

The story of this early attempt to found a teacher training institution is told in the journals of the House and Senate.¹ To the interested student this legislative record proves most fascinating reading. Suffice it to say here that the bill finally passed the House but was rejected in the Senate. In the bill as it was passed by the House the new school was to be located in Lebanon in Middle Tennessee. But in the Senate numerous amendments were offered by senators who sought to secure

¹Tennessee House Journal, 1855-56, pp. 159, 395, 525.
Senate Journal, 1855-56, pp. 420, 459, 470, 487, 489, 505, 509, 567.

the location of the school in their own districts. On the third and last reading in the Senate, the bill was rejected: ayes, 7; noes, 16. Not a man voted for the bill who had offered an amendment. Seemingly some of the senators were more interested in securing the location of the school in their sections of the state than in promoting the cause of education.

No further attempt was made to secure the establishment of a normal school before the Civil War. But the question was raised again immediately after the war. In his report, issued in 1869, Superintendent Eaton wrote as follows concerning the importance of establishing institutions for the education of teachers:

The importance of securing the benefit of this powerful agency (Normal Schools) for our teachers at the outset in opening schools after the war, was urged upon our legislature in the session of 1867-68. Rev. B. Sears, Agent of the Peabody Fund, offered aid. Hon. Wm. Bosson, Chairman of the House Committee on Common Schools, proposed and presented a bill providing for the establishment of the normal schools On solicitation, I presented the outline of a brief bill intended to inaugurate the system of normal instruction to be modified as experience should dictate. . . .

But no bill passed. This, however, did not change the opinion of educators, nor turn them from their purpose.

Is there not some Dwight to come forward and make the State a donation to aid in their first establishment? Is there not some Brooks or Channing among our clergy, some Everett, or Adams or Webster among our statesmen, of the foresight and disinterested devotion to the public welfare, to come forward and lead the enterprise of establishing Normal Schools in the State to a successful issue?¹

Unfortunately the answer to Superintendent Eaton's question apparently was No. Such educational statesmen did not appear at the time, and Tennessee suffered accordingly.

The Peabody Education Fund

Fortunately, however, the friends of public education were given invaluable assistance by a philanthropic agency known as the Peabody Education Fund, which began its service in Tennessee immediately after the close of the war. Although it is certain that one of the most interesting and significant chapters in the history of education in Tennessee concerns the Peabody Education Fund, it is possible in the present study merely to sketch in brief outline the nature and scope of its work.

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1869, pp. 41-42.

The Peabody Education Fund was established by George Peabody, a wealthy New England merchant and philanthropist. His general purpose was to aid in the development of public education in the South, which had been left prostrate after the Civil War.

The first General Agent of the Peabody Fund was the Reverend Barnas Sears, who did a notable work in administering the fund so as to achieve the greatest good for the cause of public education in the South. He travelled in every southern state. He delivered addresses on all sorts of occasions, in an effort to arouse the people themselves to take an interest in public education. Perhaps equally distinguished was Dr. Sears' successor, the Hon. J. L. M. Curry.

The Peabody Fund aided public education in every southern state. This aid took various forms. There were grants to individual schools and school systems. Appropriations were made for institute work. Sums were given to state departments of education to help finance worthwhile educational activities, sometimes to pay the salaries of special workers. A substantial grant was made yearly after 1875 to the Peabody Normal College in Nashville. Scholarships were awarded in Peabody Normal College to students from every southern state.

No state received more liberal grants in the fund than Tennessee. Indeed, if the college established in Nashville is considered a state institution, then Tennessee received perhaps the most liberal grants of any state.

Finally, after forty years of extremely valuable service in Tennessee and the entire South, the Peabody Fund converted its remaining resources into the original endowment of the George Peabody College for Teachers.

Peabody Normal College

In 1873 effort was made to pass a bill in the Tennessee legislature to authorize the establishment of a state normal school. Dr. Sears had proposed that if the state would appropriate \$6,000 annually to the school, the Peabody Education Fund would contribute a like amount. The bill finally passed the Senate,¹ but never got beyond first reading in the House.²

In the legislative session of 1875, what might be termed a subterfuge was finally resorted to. If the legislature would not enact a bill authorizing a state normal school which carried

¹Senate Journal, 1873, pp. 301, 337, 398, 404.

²House Journal, 1873, p. 444.

an appropriation, then possibly it could be induced to pass such a bill minus the appropriation. If after the school had started, it should make a favorable impression, its friends might be able to prevail upon the legislature and obtain financial support for the institution. It is said that this was the plan adopted; and it worked, after a fashion, at least.

A law was enacted¹ which provided for the establishment of a "normal school or schools, in the State of Tennessee, in connection with the public school system thereof"; yet it provided no appropriation either for establishing or maintaining the institution. Accordingly, an arrangement was made which was perhaps unique in the annals of American educational history. The new school was made the joint enterprise of three separate boards.

It will be remembered (Chapter II) that the same law which created the state normal school also established for the first time in Tennessee a state board of education, which board was given the function of administering the newly created normal school. But naturally, since the state made no contribution to the support of the school, the powers of the board were more nominal than real.

The University of Nashville, which was successor to Cumberland College, of which Philip Lindsley was for so long president, had been for a number of years on the verge of dissolution. During the war its buildings had been converted into a hospital. After the war the school was reopened, but enrollments were small. Consequently, it was probably with alacrity that the school offered to lend its practically unused buildings to the new normal college. Thus, the trustees of the University of Nashville acquired a certain amount of administrative control over the new school.

Naturally the trustees of the Peabody Fund, which contributed most of the money for the support of the new normal school, also exercised administrative control over the institution.

It would seem that such an arrangement of divided authority could hardly succeed at all. But, thanks to the public spiritedness and good sense of the members of the three boards, there was very little friction during the entire period of the existence of this three-board arrangement, which was over thirty years. Perhaps the Peabody Board exercised most authority, though in practically all important decisions there was unanimity of opinion in all three boards.

After the college was established the legislature seemed to be in no hurry whatever to begin making a state appropriation

¹Acts of 1875, chap. 90.

for its support. Indeed, not until after the Peabody Board threatened to remove the school from the state was an appropriation forthcoming.

Finally in 1881¹ the legislature appropriated \$10,000 annually for the support of the school. For a period of twenty-four years thereafter annual appropriations were made. The annual grant was raised to \$13,300 for the year, 1883-84; was lowered to \$11,500 for the year, 1887-88; was raised again to \$13,300 for 1889-90; was increased to \$18,300 for 1891-92; and was placed at \$23,300 for 1895-96, which remained the amount of the yearly appropriation until state grants were discontinued after 1904-05.² It should be stated, however, that out of each annual grant the college was required by law to allot a sum ranging from \$2,500 to \$3,300 for scholarships for negro students in negro colleges.

It is interesting to note that while at the time there were far more men teachers than women, the enrollment of women in the state normal school was uniformly larger than the enrollment of men. For instance, in President Stearn's report for the second year of the college there appears the following statement:

The whole number of students connected with the college during the year was 92, of whom 25 were males and 67 females. The proportion of males is somewhat greater than is usual in similar institutions.³

Various explanations of this anomalous situation might be offered. But perhaps the following explanation is a reasonable supposition. Even with the meagre salaries paid, young women of ability were willing to prepare themselves for the profession of teaching, because it afforded practically the only employment opportunity open to them. On the other hand, certain men would teach for the low wage paid so long as no special qualifications were required; but capable young men of any ambition could see no reason why they should prepare themselves for a profession which offered such small pecuniary inducement.

Certain available facts concerning attendance in the college are of interest. During most of the years Tennessee provided more than half the total enrollment, and of course a large percentage of the Tennessee enrollment was from Nashville and Davidson County. Other states which sent a considerable number of students to the school were: Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia,

¹Acts of 1881, chap. 154.

²Peabody College Bulletin, June, 1913, p. 4.

³Report of the State Superintendent, 1877, p. 28.

Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Texas, Virginia and West Virginia. Strangely enough, the adjacent state of Kentucky sent very few students. Other states and countries which furnished one or more students during the entire history of the school included the following: California, District of Columbia, Indiana, Indian Territory, Iowa, Japan, Kansas, Maryland, Massachusetts, Mexico, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Ontario, Pennsylvania and Wisconsin. Total enrollments and Tennessee enrollments for the years concerning which reports are available are shown in Table XVII.

TABLE XVII

NUMBER OF STUDENTS ENROLLED IN PEABODY NORMAL COLLEGE
1875-1906

Years	Tennessee Enrollments	Total Enrollments
1875-76	59	60
1876-77	91	91
1877-78	94	113
1878-79	87	131
1879-80	53	137
1880-81	60	158
1881-82	62	173
1882-83	55	157
1883-84	59	154
1884-85	66	165
1885-86	57	153
1886-87	73	178
1887-88	69	177
1888-89	151	280
1889-90	203	359
1890-91	216	422
1891-92	251	470
1892-93	311	560
1893-94	256	508
1894-95	243	528
1895-96	283	575
1896-97	277	544
1897-98	273	578
1898-99	306	604
1899-1900	302	602
1900-01	294	607
1901-02	274	577
1903-04	239	438
1905-06	253	359

George Peabody College for Teachers

After 1904-05 all annual appropriations by the state to Peabody Normal College ceased. The movement was now definitely launched to convert the school into a great endowed institution for the training of teachers from the entire south.

Legally Peabody continued to exist during the transition period from 1905 to 1909 as the state normal school, though it received no support whatever from the state.

The interesting story of the transition of Peabody Normal College into George Peabody College for Teachers can be told briefly. The Trustees of the Peabody Fund definitely decided to invest their entire resources in a great teachers college for the South. Their preference was to establish the new college in Nashville, where the old college was located. But the Board definitely refused to do so, unless inducements were offered sufficient to prove that Tennesseans really wanted the school in their midst.

Specifically, the Board agreed to establish in Nashville the "George Peabody College for Teachers" and to appropriate immediately out of its funds the sum of \$1,000,000 as a permanent endowment, provided certain conditions were met. There should be delivered to the board or placed at its disposition:

- (1) Bonds of the County of Davidson for \$50,000.
- (2) Bonds of the City of Nashville for \$200,000.
- (3) The sum of \$250,000 appropriated by the State of Tennessee.
- (4) Sixteen acres of land and the buildings and appurtenances now occupied and used by the Peabody Normal College and conveyed by the trustees of the University of Nashville, and
- (5) The further sum of \$50,000 in money or its equivalent.

It can be stated that negotiations concerning the various transactions involved were in progress for a period of almost five years, from 1905 to 1909, and that all conditions were finally met and the new college was established. The name of the corporation was officially changed to George Peabody College for Teachers, September 30, 1909; and the first meeting of the Board of Trustees of the new college was held on October 5, 1909.¹

There was much dissatisfaction with the site of old Peabody Normal College in south Nashville. Accordingly a site for the new college was purchased in west Nashville adjoining Vanderbilt University. The college was closed from June, 1911,

¹Peabody College Bulletin, September, 1912, Vol. I, No. 1, New Series, p. 3 and pp. 152, ff.

to the summer of 1914, during which time buildings were erected on the new campus.

Peabody has one of the most beautiful college campuses in the country. Eleven buildings have been completed since the college was reorganized on the new campus. Enrollments in the regular session are usually in excess of five hundred, and in the summer session in excess of fifteen hundred.

The Doctor's degree was first given at Peabody in 1919. The total number of doctorates conferred up to June, 1934, was 164, in addition to which several hundred Master's degrees have been awarded. Peabody is the only institution in the state which confers the Doctor's degree in Education. Dr. Bruce R. Payne has been president of the college since its founding a quarter of a century ago.

It is interesting to note that some of the traditions of old Peabody persist in the new school. Although the college in reality retains no legal affiliation with the public school system of Tennessee, it has not forgotten its former status as a state institution, and it retains an active interest in public education in the state. The intimate connection of Peabody with public education in Tennessee is further strengthened by the fact that many of its former students hold positions of importance in the state.

The University of Tennessee

Attention has already been called to the fact that a vacation school for teachers in service was established at the University of Tennessee in the year, 1889-90. It held its first session from February 13 to June 18, 1890. This vacation school led to the introduction of teacher education as a part of the regular curriculum of the university.

In the register for 1890-91 a Teachers Department was announced as a regular part of the program of the University. It was to consist of a term of five months beginning in the Fall and the vacation school lasting from the latter part of January to June. In 1893-94 the vacation school was dropped completely, and a teachers course as a regular part of the curriculum was established.

Finally in 1900 teacher education in the University of Tennessee was abandoned entirely.

An interesting and apparently little known fact should be related in this connection. The evidence is that the Teachers Department brought co-education to the University of Tennessee. There is a tradition that in the early years of Blount College a

few women attended the institution, most notable of whom was Barbara Blount, daughter of the Territorial Governor. But after the establishment of East Tennessee College in 1807 the institution was limited to men students exclusively.

It seems that until the teachers' department was established women said little or nothing about being excluded from attendance at the institution. But when a course for the professional training of teachers was announced women refused to be denied admittance to the new department.

Perhaps the most interesting discussion of the issues involved occurred at the meeting of the Public School Officers Association, which was held in Knoxville, December 9-12, 1890.¹ A Mrs. French was the vigorous champion of women's rights. One of the most enlightening speeches favoring co-education was delivered by President William H. Payne, of the Peabody Normal College, who also voiced his pleasure at the fact that the University of Tennessee had decided to include a course in teacher training in its curriculum.

During the session of 1892-93 women were first admitted to the Teachers Department. The following year, 1893-94, they were admitted to all departments on equality with the men. Since that time the University has been co-educational.

As was noted in Chapter V, the Summer School of the South held its first session in 1902, under the leadership of Dr. P. P. Claxton, who at the time was professor in a teachers college in North Carolina. In January, 1903, Dr. Claxton accepted a position as professor of Education in the University of Tennessee. Thus the professional training of teachers, which had been discontinued in 1900, was re-introduced into the curriculum of the regular session of the University, where it has remained ever since. Dr. Claxton continued as a member of the faculty until 1911, when he resigned to accept appointment as United States Commissioner of Education.

In 1912 the Department of Education became the School of Education. In 1926 the School of Education became the College of Education. In 1917 Dr. John A. Thackston came to the University as head of the School of Education. In 1926 he was made Dean of the newly established College of Education, which position he now holds.

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1890, Appendix C,
pp. 80, ff:

State Teachers Colleges

Slightly over fifty-three years after the first attempt to establish a state normal school, which was made in the legislative session of 1855-56, the legislature in 1909¹ authorized the establishment of three state normal schools, one to be located in each of the three grand divisions of the state. This is one of the provisions of the general education law which was sponsored by the leaders in the educational campaigns which were inaugurated in the state in 1903. Undoubtedly the friends of public education secured the best law they could get. But, from the standpoint of state planning, a grievous error was made in the provisions of the measure. Adequate funds were not provided by the legislature for purchasing sites and erecting and equipping buildings. Hence the State Board of Education was not free to locate the new schools on the basis of a planned state program of higher education, but was literally compelled to put the schools up to the highest bidder.

An additional act was passed² authorizing any county or municipality in Tennessee to issue bonds to the amount of \$100,000 for the purpose of erecting and equipping buildings.

Many towns and counties made offers to the state board. It is said that twenty-one places submitted propositions for the location of one of the schools. Finally Memphis and Shelby County in West Tennessee, Murfreesboro and Rutherford County in Middle Tennessee, and Johnson City and Washington County in East Tennessee secured the schools.

But if one consults a map of Tennessee he is immediately convinced that only the school at Murfreesboro was properly located. The school at Johnson City is almost in the extreme northeast corner of the state; it is only about twenty-five miles from both the Virginia and the North Carolina lines. The school at Memphis is in the southwest corner of the state; it is hardly ten miles from both Mississippi and Arkansas.

Although it is undoubtedly true that from the standpoint of a planned state program of higher education these two schools are not properly situated, it is fortunate that there is much to be said for their present locations. Johnson City is a thriving city in a beautiful and prosperous section of the state. Unquestionably Memphis affords many advantages which are not to be found in smaller communities in West Tennessee.

¹Acts of 1909, chap. 264.

²Acts of 1909, chap. 580.

The schools at Johnson City and Murfreesboro opened in the fall of 1911; the school at Memphis in the fall of 1912. Because of the almost complete lack of high schools in many sections of the state at the time the schools opened, it was deemed necessary to begin with very low entrance requirements; many students came directly from rural elementary schools. Without attempting to trace the development of these schools in detail, it is only fair to say that they have raised their entrance requirements and standards for graduation as rapidly as circumstances would allow.

The General Education law of 1925 authorized the maintenance of teachers colleges, one in each of the three grand divisions of the state. Accordingly, the State Board of Education converted the normal schools into teachers colleges, requiring the equivalent of high school graduation for entrance and offering a four year course of college work, leading to a Bachelor's degree.

In 1925 the schools were given the names, East Tennessee State Teachers College, Middle Tennessee State Teachers College, and West Tennessee State Teachers College. In 1930 the names were changed to State Teachers College, Johnson City; State Teachers College, Murfreesboro; and State Teachers College, Memphis, respectively.

Tennessee Polytechnic Institute

Tennessee Polytechnic Institute was established in 1915.¹ It can be stated in fairness to all concerned that the school was not a part of a planned state program of higher education, but was the result of a local lobby. Cookeville had a disintegrating private college and wanted a state college. It spoke to the legislature and the legislature listened.

Whatever significance the name "Polytechnic Institute" might once have had has now been lost. The school is in reality a liberal arts college, emphasizing science and offering some applied science and teacher training.

For a few years Tennessee Polytechnic Institute offered a fairly extensive teacher training program, including some student teaching in the primary grades. But with the drastic cut in appropriation in 1933, the school gave up student teaching and reduced its program of teacher preparation to a modest offering.

¹Acts of 1915, chap. 35.

Austin Peay Normal School

In 1927 local school lobbies descended upon the legislature and again they were successful. Southwestern Presbyterian University had moved from Clarksville to Memphis, abandoning its old buildings. Clarksville wanted a state school and proposed to donate these buildings if one were established. Accordingly a bill was passed creating Austin Peay Normal School, accepting the gift of the buildings for its site, and appropriating the annual sum of \$75,000 for its support.

The bill which established the school states that it is created

. . . . for the purpose of training white teachers for the rural public schools of the State, and shall never be used for any other purpose.¹

The University of Tennessee Junior College

The same legislature of 1927 which established the Austin Peay Normal School at Clarksville also established the University of Tennessee Junior College at Martin, in response to the pressure exerted by a determined local lobby. Martin proposed to donate to the state the property of a defunct Baptist junior college, in return for which the state should establish in Martin a junior college as a branch of the state university. The legislature accepted the exchange by a law which appropriated \$75,000 a year for the support of the new school. The institution was to be established as a "Junior College of Agriculture, Industrial Arts and Home Economics."

Within the next few years a large farm was purchased, several new buildings were erected, and a splendid plant was developed.

It was not intended that teacher training should form any part of the program of the junior college at Martin, but the people demanded it and it was introduced. However only a limited number of courses in Education are offered.

Private Schools

Private schools and colleges have abounded in Tennessee from the beginning of its history. Literally hundreds of academies and scores of colleges have been chartered. Many of them were never even established.

¹Acts of 1927, chap. 50.

A few significant statistics will suffice to give an idea of the extent of private education in the state. For the year 1888 there are the following figures:¹

Number of private schools.	1102
Number of teachers in private schools. . .	1555
Number of pupils in private schools. . .	30,600

For the year 1900 the following interesting facts are recorded:²

Number of private institutions conferring degrees.	64
Not conferring degrees	291
Number calling themselves normal schools . .	26

In 1901 the private normal schools listed were 28. For 1902 these statistics appear:

Institutions of Learning Other than
Public Schools in Tennessee

Total number listed	391
Those granting degrees.	81
Those using "normal" in name.	25
Those using "academy" in name	80
Those using "institute" in name.	64
Those using "seminary" in name.	15
Those using "college" in name	53
Those using "school" in name.	55
Those using "university" in name.	14

By 1903 the number of schools reported as "normals" had dropped to seventeen. In 1904 it was seven. In 1905 ten normals were reported, in 1907 only eight, and then in descending order, in 1910, five, in 1912, four, and in 1914, two.

There are no private normal schools or teachers colleges in the state at the present time save George Peabody College for Teachers. But the private colleges have always played a prominent part in teacher education in Tennessee. They also play an important role today, as will be shown in Chapter IX.

Teacher Education in High Schools

When the normal schools were established by the law of 1909 it was expected that they would train the rural school

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1888, p. 14.

²Report of the State Superintendent, 1900, pp. 80-81.

³Report of the State Superintendent, 1902, pp. 74-86.

teachers of the state. But this did not follow. Rural school salaries were pitifully low; living conditions for teachers were often unattractive. Trained teachers were scarce. Hence it is not surprising to learn that ten years after the normal schools were established an exceedingly small number of rural teachers had had normal school training. The figures for the year 1921-22 are presented in Table XVIII.¹

TABLE XVIII
NUMBER AND PER CENT OF TEACHERS IN 1921-22
WITH NORMAL SCHOOL TRAINING

School Systems	Number of Teachers Employed	Per Cent Normal School Graduates	Per Cent Normal Academic Graduates	Per Cent Who Had Attended A Normal School
In counties	10,163	3.3	3.2	14.1
In cities	3,081	7.0	3.5	23.8

These figures substantiate what had been known for some time, that the state normal schools had not supplied the need for trained teachers for the rural sections of the state. The means by which the state sought to meet this need was the high-school teacher training class.

Teacher training in high schools has behind it considerable history and not a little sanction by educational leaders. As far back as 1897 the Report of the National Education Association Committee of Twelve on Rural Schools called attention to the fact that normal schools were not training teachers for the rural schools, and recommended a system of normal training classes in high schools for preparing teachers who would stay in rural communities.²

High school training classes were organized in New York as early as 1834. Following the report referred to above, about half the states organized and legalized teacher training classes in the high schools. But it was not until 1917³ that Tennessee introduced this method of teacher preparation.

The law of 1917 provided that upon the completion of one unit of work in teacher training, graduates of high schools might

¹Report of the State Superintendent, 1921-22, pp. 144 ff.

²E.P. Cubberley, State School Administration, p. 598.
Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1927.

³Acts of 1917, chap. 130.

receive a one-year certificate. This could be renewed for a year on completion of three subjects in a six-weeks term in some approved college or state normal school.

Superintendent J. B. Brown, who served from 1921 to 1923, was in favor of this form of teacher preparation. Hence upon the recommendation of the superintendent, the legislature in 1921¹ passed a supplementary act appropriating \$25,000 to encourage and support these high school classes.

The extent of teacher preparation in high schools is indicated by the following data taken from the state superintendent's report for 1921-22.² The pupils taking the course in that year were classified as follows: freshmen, 19; sophomores, 24; juniors, 268; seniors, 329; postgraduates, 49; total, 689.

As pointed out in Chapter IV, it was provided in the General Law of 1925 that a limited training certificate valid for one year in the county in which it was issued would be awarded the high school graduate who had completed one unit of professional education approved by the State Board of Education.

Soon after the passage of this law in 1925 high-school teacher training fell into ill repute. It was removed at a meeting of the State Board of Education held in August, 1927, when a resolution was adopted omitting teacher training courses from the list of subjects authorized for high schools. The effect of this action was to eliminate the limited training certificate based upon high-school training only, although the law remains exactly as it was.

The Education of Vocational Teachers

The report of the state superintendent for 1917-18³ contains the following announcement concerning the training of vocational teachers:

Vocational Education

Congress in 1917 passed what is known as the Smith-Hughes Act for the promotion of Vocational Education. It provides a fund with which to assist schools that teach vocational agriculture, trades and industries, and home economics. It is also to assist schools that prepare teachers to teach these branches.

The University of Tennessee, the Middle Tennessee State Normal School, and the Agricultural and Industrial School for Negroes have been designated as the schools to do teacher-training for vocational work.

¹Acts of 1921, chap. 118.

²Report of the State Superintendent, 1921-22, pp. 250-251.

³Report of the State Superintendent, 1917-18, p. 14.

Later the George Peabody College for Teachers was also designated as a school for the training of so-called Smith-Hughes Teachers. At the present time, however, only the University of Tennessee trains Smith-Hughes teachers for the white schools of the state. The objective in the present arrangement is to avoid needless duplication of effort. The State Board of Education has ruled, however, that a Master's degree in vocational education entitles the holder to qualify as a Smith-Hughes teacher.

Agriculture and home economics are required subjects in all county high schools. However the work is not taught by Smith-Hughes teachers in all schools. Teachers are termed vocational or non-vocational, depending upon whether they are or are not Smith-Hughes teachers. In 1932-33, there were 152 white and 24 negro teachers of Vocational Agriculture in the state.

The Education of Negro Teachers

The first provision for the education of negroes in Tennessee was contained in the law of 1867. This provision was undoubtedly one of the reasons for the unpopularity of the law which was eventually repealed. However, the law of 1873 made a similar provision. But at that time the state did nothing toward the training of either white or negro teachers.

The Peabody Education Fund helped to tide the state over this difficult period of Reconstruction. Its aid and that of other philanthropic agencies made possible the gradual establishment of a system of negro education. Poor as it undoubtedly was, this system for a time afforded better schools and better teacher training in some districts than were available for the whites. Practically all the large counties in East Tennessee and a few in other parts of the state were made the sites of schools for negroes established by Northern philanthropy. All these private negro colleges but six have long since passed out of existence. The Peabody Fund also granted a certain number of scholarships annually to negro college students and supported most of the state and many of the county institutes for negro teachers.

Finally in 1881 the legislature made its first contribution to teacher training in Tennessee. The same act¹ which provided the first annual appropriation of \$10,000 for the support of the State Normal School for whites, stated that of this amount \$2,500 a year should be expended for the normal training of negroes. This grant was increased to \$3,300 in 1883, reduced to \$3,000 in 1887, and raised again to \$3,300 in 1891.

¹Acts of 1881, chap. 114.

A system of scholarships was worked out as the method of spending this annual fund. The plan was to give a scholarship, usually amounting to \$50.00 yearly but sometimes less, to two students from each of the thirty-three senatorial districts in the state. Scholarship students had to attend one of the schools designated as suitable by the state superintendent.

This small provision of sixty-six scholarships of \$50.00 each cannot have been by any means adequate to the needs of the state for trained negro teachers; but it did at least signify that the state recognized its obligation to provide the training. No better state plan for the training of negro teachers was forthcoming until the passage of the general education law of 1909.

The law of 1909 provided for the establishment of a state school for negroes. There was no feverish bidding for this school as there was for the newly authorized state schools for whites. Consequently the State Board of Education was able to locate the school as seemed best for the state without insistent pressure from a local group. Nashville was chosen as the location. Davidson County appropriated \$80,000 to the new school, and the citizens of Nashville gave \$20,000 for the erection of buildings.¹

For some reason the school was given the name of "Agricultural and Industrial State Normal School," which was changed in 1925 to "Agricultural and Industrial State Teachers College." Objection to the present name was expressed by officials of the school. It does seem that the negro college could be given a more appropriate and less formidable name.

The state college, which opened on June 19, 1912, has become one of the finest colleges for negroes in America. It has evidently been administered with remarkable success by its able president, who has held his present position since the founding of the college. The state has been fairly generous in its appropriations, and substantial contributions have been made by the General Education Board, the Rosenwald Fund, and other philanthropic agencies. The college likewise receives certain sums each year from the federal government.

¹Bulletin, Agricultural and Industrial State Teachers College, 1929, p. 15.

PART III

ANALYSIS OF CONDITIONS AND NEEDS IN 1933-34

CHAPTER VII

ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES AND PROCEDURES AFFECTING THE TEACHING PERSONNEL

Part III consists of an analysis of existing conditions in regard to teachers and teacher education in Tennessee. The study is based upon data collected during the scholastic year 1933-34, and is organized under four general headings: first, administrative practices and procedures affecting the teaching personnel; second, the problem of supplying an adequate teaching personnel; third, teacher education as it is now administered in the state; and fourth, the relation of teacher education to the general program of higher education.

The purpose of the present chapter is to study existing conditions in public education in Tennessee as they relate to the administration of the teaching personnel. The topics considered are: the length of the school term, tenure, salary, age of employed personnel, sex of employed personnel, the marital condition of teachers, employment of local teachers, the procedures employed in appointing and assigning teachers, and the question of nepotism in the schools. This analysis of existing conditions concerning the teaching personnel is presented in the belief that it directs attention to certain problems which Tennessee must face in attaining the objective of providing capable teachers for all the public schools of the state.

Length of School Term

One of the factors which determine the attractiveness of a vocation or profession is the length of the term of employment each year. Teaching as a profession has suffered in Tennessee from the influence of this factor. At best it offers but nine months of employment in all but very exceptional cases. Too often the term has been, and is today, even shorter.

All high schools are taught for nine months each year, because the state board of education will not accredit a high school with a shorter term. But the idea of standardizing the term for elementary schools has never been applied in Tennessee to any extent. Pupils who have received six or seven months of training in a poor school and pupils who have received nine or ten months of training in a good school are promoted alike to

the next year's work.

The situation in regard to length of term in white elementary schools, both county and city, is shown in Table XIX. Information concerning the negro elementary schools is not available, but there is no reason to assume that conditions in these schools were markedly different. The table shows that 71.2 per cent of all the elementary teachers are employed eight months or less. This situation presents one of the problems which Tennessee must face. She has no right to expect a well educated citizenry, or to demand highly trained teachers, unless she provides a longer term than is now provided in many of the elementary schools.

TABLE XIX
LENGTH OF SCHOOL TERMS TAUGHT BY TEACHERS IN
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS FOR WHITE PUPILS

Length of School Term in Months	Distribution of Teachers	
	Number	Per Cent
4	8	0.1
5	--	-
6	235	1.8
7	429	3.4
8	8428	65.9
9	3114	24.3
10	579	4.5
Not recorded	1	0.0
Total	12794	100.0

Tenure

Perhaps no profession suffers so much as that of teaching from briefness of tenure. This is unfortunate, not only because it detracts from the appeal of the teaching profession, but because the individual teacher, being forced to accustom himself again and again to new sets of circumstances, cannot do his best work or exert his greatest influence over his pupils.

In Table XX are presented data concerning the number of years elementary teachers in Tennessee have held their present positions. The table shows that 55.9 per cent of all the elementary teachers in 1933-34 had not taught in their present positions before or had taught in their present positions one or two years before.

TABLE XX

NUMBER OF YEARS ELEMENTARY TEACHERS
HAVE HELD THEIR PRESENT POSITIONS

Years in Present Position	Distribution of Teachers	
	Number	Per Cent
0 - 2	8402	55.9
3 - 5	3372	22.4
6 - 8	1458	9.7
9 - 11	746	4.9
12 - 14	440	2.9
15 - 17	248	1.6
18 - 20	143	0.9
21 - 23	72	0.5
24 - 26	64	0.4
27 and over	103	0.7
No record	3	
Total	15051	99.9

Similar data concerning teachers in high schools are given in Table XXI. Because of the difficulty encountered in securing information from certain large high schools in independent city districts, it was necessary to use data for the school year 1932-33. It will be noted that 25.3 per cent of the high school teachers in 1932-33 either had not taught in their present positions before or had taught one year in their present positions.

TABLE XXI

NUMBER OF YEARS HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS
HAVE HELD THEIR PRESENT POSITIONS

Years in Present Positions	Distribution of Teachers	
	Number	Per Cent
0 - 1	510	25.3
2 - 3	713	35.5
4 - 5	378	18.8
6 - 7	180	9.0
8 - 9	97	4.8
10 - 11	55	2.7
12 - 13	27	1.1
14 - 15	20	1.0
16 and over	30	1.5
No record	54	
Total	2064	99.7

Table XXII shows the number of years high school principals have held their present positions. The median number of years in present position is slightly less than four. It will be noted that 17.7 per cent of all high school principals are beginners in their present positions. More than half of the high school principals in Tennessee have held their present positions less than four years.

TABLE XXII
NUMBER OF YEARS HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
HAVE HELD THEIR PRESENT POSITIONS

Years in Present Position	Distribution of Teachers	
	Number	Per Cent
0 - 1	100	17.7
2 - 3	198	35.0
4 - 5	101	17.9
6 - 7	63	11.1
8 - 9	37	6.5
10 - 11	15	2.6
12 - 13	17	3.0
14 - 15	12	2.1
16 and over	22	3.9
Total	565	99.8

Table XXIII shows the number of years county and city superintendents have held their present positions. Of the county superintendents, 12.9 per cent were beginners. Of the city superintendents only 1.6 per cent were beginners. Slightly less than half the county superintendents and slightly more than half the city superintendents have held their present positions four years or more.

TABLE XXIII
NUMBER OF YEARS COUNTY AND CITY SUPERINTENDENTS
HAVE HELD THEIR PRESENT POSITIONS

Number Of Years	County		City	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
0 - 1	12	12.9	1	1.6
1 - 3	38	40.9	29	47.5
4 - 6	19	20.4	7	11.5
7 - 9	4	4.3	7	11.5
10 - 12	9	9.7	5	8.2
13 - 15	4	4.4	4	6.6

TABLE XXIII (CONTINUED)

Number Of Years	County		City	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
16 - 18	1	1.1	2	3.3
19 - 21	1	1.1	2	3.3
22 - 24	--	--	--	--
25 - 27	1	1.1	3	4.9
28 - 30	2	2.1	--	--
31 - 33	1	1.1	1	1.6
34 and over	1	1.1	--	--
No record	2		26	
Total	93	100.1	61	100.0

The data presented in this section show that tenure is briefest among elementary teachers. A better situation prevails among high school teachers, a still better situation among high school principals, and the best among county and city superintendents. But the facts indicate that briefness of tenure is a definite problem in the administration of the teaching personnel. That this situation is by no means confined to Tennessee is indicated by Graves in a recent publication in which he devotes a chapter to a discussion of the question of "Turnover and Tenure."¹ Graves makes the statement that "The proportion of changes in a teaching force is nearly everywhere too great."²

Salary

No less important to a profession than its term of employment during the year and its length of tenure is the salary which it offers. Table XXIV shows the distribution of salaries of elementary teachers for the school year 1933-34, and Table XXV shows the same for teachers in high schools for white pupils in 1932-33.

It will be noted that 8.8 per cent of the elementary teachers received not more than \$40.00 per month, that 35.1 per cent received not more than \$55.00 per month, and that 62.6 per cent received not more than \$70.00 per month. Table XXV shows that high school teachers were better paid, although 36.6 per cent received less than \$900.00 per year.

¹Frank P. Graves, The Administration of American Education, pp. 212-220. New York: Macmillan Co., 1932.

²Ibid., p. 212.

TABLE XXIV
MONTHLY SALARIES OF WHITE AND COLORED
ELEMENTARY TEACHERS

Monthly Salary	White		Colored		Total	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
\$ 26- 40	717	5.6	606	26.8	1323	8.8
41- 55	3465	27.1	490	21.7	3955	26.3
56- 70	3712	29.1	424	18.8	4136	27.5
71- 85	1846	14.5	199	8.8	1945	12.9
86-100	1179	9.2	365	16.2	1544	10.3
101-115	559	4.4	117	5.2	676	4.5
116-130	568	4.4	22	1.0	590	4.0
131-145	285	2.2	12	0.5	297	2.0
146-160	266	2.1	15	0.7	281	1.9
161-175	46	0.4	4	0.2	50	0.3
176-190	20	0.2	-	--	20	0.1
191-205	42	0.3	-	--	42	0.3
206-220	12	0.1	-	--	12	0.1
221-235	4	0.0	-	--	4	0.0
236-250	28	0.2	-	--	28	0.0
251-265	6	0.0	-	--	6	0.0
266-280	9	0.1	-	--	9	0.1
281 and over	3	0.0	-	--	3	0.0
No record	27		3		30	
Total	12794	99.9	2257	99.9	15051	99.1

TABLE XXV
SALARIES OF TEACHERS IN COUNTY HIGH SCHOOLS
FOR WHITE PUPILS

Salary	Number	Per Cent
\$ - 899	680	36.6
900 - 999	304	16.3
1000 - 1099	204	11.0
1100 - 1199	171	9.2
1200 - 1299	125	6.7
1300 - 1399	83	4.5
1400 - 1499	47	2.5
1500 - 1599	46	2.5
1600 - 1699	41	2.2
1700 - 1799	11	0.6
1899 - 1899	45	2.4
1900 - 1999	6	0.3
2000 - 2099	21	1.1
2100 - 2199	12	0.6
2200 - 2299	13	0.7

TABLE XXV (CONTINUED)

Salary	Number	Per Cent
2300 - 2399	--	--
2400 - 2499	42	2.3
2500 - 2599	4	0.2
2600 - 2699	1	0.1
2700 - 2799	--	--
2800 - 2899	1	0.1
2900 - 2999	1	0.1
3000 - 3099	1	0.1
3100 -	1	
No record	86	
Total	1946	100.2

In fairness it should be said that the financial condition of the counties and the state, as well as of the country at large, has been very alarming during recent years and that some part of the privations to which teachers and schools have been subjected is due to general conditions.

There is another element in the salary situation which renders the teaching profession much less attractive than it would be otherwise. At the present time in many school systems in the state the salary paid the most efficient experienced teacher is little more than that paid a beginner in the profession.¹

There seems to be conclusive evidence that one of the most serious problems facing Tennessee today concerns the question of school finance. If schools are to be taught by capable teachers an adequate plan for financing the schools must be formulated.

Age of Employed Personnel

Perhaps one of the best indications of the status of a profession is the age of its employed personnel. If the age distribution of the group approximates the age distribution of the entire population, this indicates that workers tend to remain in the profession for an employment lifetime. On the other hand, if the group includes a much larger percentage of younger people than does the entire population, this indicates that many members

¹Dr. P. P. Claxton in a recent interview stated this situation rather quaintly as follows: "Teachers in Tennessee, like flies, are born grown and die young." That is, they get practically their maximum salary the first year and they desert the profession in a very few years.

of the group do not remain in the profession for an employment lifetime. The age distribution of 15,051 elementary teachers in Tennessee is shown in Table XXVI.

TABLE XXVI
AGES OF 15,051 ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Age	Total Number	Per Cent
16 - 20	890	5.8
21 - 25	5108	33.9
26 - 30	3742	24.8
31 - 35	1647	10.9
36 - 40	1146	7.6
41 - 45	850	5.6
46 - 50	637	4.2
51 - 55	410	2.7
56 - 60	278	1.8
61 and over	246	1.6
Total	15051	99.9

Unfortunately for our purpose, the grouping in the United States Census is not exactly the same as that here employed, but the similarity is close enough to admit of significant comparison. The population statistics which follow are from the 1930 census.¹ Of the entire population of Tennessee, 43.8 per cent are under twenty years of age. Although 5.8 per cent of the elementary teachers in the state are under twenty, it is certain that persons so young should not be considered eligible for teaching positions except in very rare circumstances. If those above twenty are considered the employable group, the following data are applicable. Of the employable group, 16.9 per cent are between the ages of twenty and twenty-four; of the elementary teachers, 33.9 per cent are between the ages of twenty-one and twenty-five. Of the employable group 13.9 per cent are between twenty-five and twenty-nine; of the elementary teachers, 24.8 per cent are between twenty-six and thirty. Of the employable group. 11.8 per cent are between thirty and thirty-four; of the elementary teachers, 10.9 per cent are between the ages of thirty-one and thirty-five. Of the employable group, 21.3 per cent are between thirty-five and forty-four; of the elementary teachers, 13.2 per cent are

¹Fifteenth Census of the United States: 1930, Vol. 3, Part 2, p. 874.

between thirty-six and forty-five. Of the employable group, 17.3 per cent are between forty-five and fifty-four; of the elementary teachers, 6.9 per cent are between forty-six and fifty-five. Of the employable group 10.7 per cent are between fifty-five and sixty-four; of the elementary teachers, 3.4 per cent are over fifty-six years of age. These figures prove conclusively that the profession of elementary school teaching in Tennessee is not followed for an employment lifetime by a large percentage of its recruits.

The age distribution of county and city superintendents is shown in Table XXVII. It will be noted that superintendents are on the whole older and more widely distributed in age than teachers. It is interesting to contrast the figures in Table XXVI with those in Table XXVII. Of the elementary teachers, 75.4 per cent are under thirty-six years of age; while of the county superintendents, 35.6 per cent, and of the city superintendents, 29.5 per cent are under thirty-six.

TABLE XXVII
AGES OF COUNTY AND CITY SUPERINTENDENTS

Age	County Superintendents		City Superintendents	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
26 - 30	18	20.0	5	8.2
31 - 35	14	15.6	13	21.3
36 - 40	12	13.3	14	23.0
41 - 45	16	17.8	12	19.7
46 - 50	11	12.2	5	8.2
51 - 55	8	8.9	5	8.2
56 - 60	3	3.3	4	6.6
61 and over	8	8.9	3	5.0
No record	5		26	
Total	95	100.0	87	100.2

Years of Educational Experience

Table XXVIII shows the years of teaching experience of elementary teachers. The table shows that almost half the elementary teachers have had less than five years of teaching experience.

TABLE XXVIII

YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF 15,051
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Years Of Teaching Experience	White Teachers	Colored Teachers	Total
0 - 4	5252	661	5913
5 - 9	3569	535	4104
10 - 14	1791	364	2155
15 - 19	937	238	1175
20 - 24	541	188	729
25 - 29	338	94	432
30 - 34	193	86	279
35 - 39	95	40	135
40 - 44	56	35	91
45 and over	22	16	38
Total	12794	2257	15051

The number of years of educational experience of high school teachers is presented in Table XXIX. The median number of years of experience of high school teachers is slightly more than five years.

TABLE XXIX

YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS

Total Years	Number	Total Years	Number
1 - 2	360	21 - 22	13
3 - 4	426	23 - 24	18
5 - 6	345	25 - 26	14
7 - 8	281	27 - 28	8
9 - 10	196	29 - 30	9
11 - 12	127	31 - 32	8
13 - 14	75	33 - 34	8
15 - 16	59	35 - 36	2
17 - 18	42	37 - 38	1
19 - 20	30	39 - 40	1
		Over 40	5

Total 2028

The number of years of educational experience possessed by high school principals is presented in Table XXX. The median is slightly more than eleven years.

TABLE XXX

TOTAL YEARS OF EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCE OF
HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Total Years	Number	Total Years	Number
1 - 2	21	21 - 22	25
3 - 4	41	23 - 24	16
5 - 6	68	25 - 26	20
7 - 8	91	27 - 28	11
9 - 10	59	29 - 30	10
11 - 12	49	31 - 32	7
13 - 14	42	33 - 34	--
15 - 16	25	35 - 36	9
17 - 18	34	37 - 38	7
19 - 20	20	39 - 40	2
		Over 40	6
Total		563	

The task of rightly interpreting the data presented in the preceding section concerning the age of the employed personnel and the present section concerning years of educational experience is complicated by the presence in the profession of such a large percentage of women. Most women marry and most married women follow the vocation of homemaking. This means that in the natural course of events relatively few women teachers are elderly, and that perhaps under ideal conditions the average age of public school teachers would be considerably less than that of an employed group consisting almost exclusively of men.

Nevertheless, it cannot be denied that an unsatisfactory state of affairs exists when practically half the public school teachers in Tennessee have no more than five years of experience in the profession. Graves emphasizes the importance of experience in increasing the efficiency of a teacher. Among other things, he says: "Certainly she does not reach the maximum of her efficiency until she has had an experience of at least five or six years in her profession."¹

Another regrettable outcome of the relatively unattractive employment conditions in the teaching profession is suggested by Judd:

Whenever one reads public criticisms of teachers as a class, one ought to recognize clearly that these criticisms

¹Op. cit., p. 215.

mean that society has failed to make teaching attractive ¹ to people who are socially and culturally above criticism.

The facts at hand suggest a problem which must be met if public school teaching in Tennessee is to take its rightful place as a profession, namely, that of recruiting youths of ability into the profession, and of making employment conditions so attractive that they will choose to remain in the profession for an employment lifetime, unless matrimony or other circumstance prevents.

Sex of Employed Personnel

The findings concerning the sex of the employed personnel are presented in this section. Of the 15,051 elementary teachers whose records were studied, 3,172 were men and 11,879 were women, the number of men being 21 per cent of the total. Of a total of 16,580 elementary and high school teachers, employed in 1932-33, 4,308 were men and 14,272 were women, the number of men being 23.2 per cent of the total.

On the other hand, Tennesseans seem to prefer men for high school principals and superintendents. The reports show that there are 410 men and 31 women high school principals - a ratio of 13 to 1. The facts secured concerning the sex of county superintendents are as follows: men, 91, women, 2; no record, 2; total, 95. The facts secured concerning city superintendents are as follows: men, 60; women, 1; no record, 26; total, 87.

It is the opinion of many students of education that one of the most important problems concerning the teaching personnel is suggested by the data presented in this section. The problem is to attract a larger percentage of young men of outstanding ability into the teaching profession. Thorndike years ago asserted that "it would almost certainly be a gain for the teachers of boys and girls to include a larger proportion of men if the best men would do that work with equal zeal."² Briggs, noting the complaint that "in early adolescence pupils do not get the needed influence of teachers of both sexes," said, "There is no implication that men are better teachers than women; the assumption is that there is a need for the example and influence of both men and women on boys and girls who are tending to set their ideals and attitudes toward many matters of life."³ Snedden, then

¹Op. cit., p. 126.

²Edward L. Thorndike, Education: A First Book, p. 160. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1912.

³Thomas H. Briggs, The Junior High School, pp. 14-15. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1920.

Commissioner of Education for Massachusetts, declared that:

If the state is willing to pay the price, a certain proportion of men teachers should be assigned to departmental positions, not primarily because they are necessarily better teachers than women, but because it is desirable to introduce, in boys' classes at any rate, the influence of masculine personality.¹

But perhaps the most vigorous protest against the prevailing tendency to feminize the profession of teaching has been voiced by Buchholz.² Among other things he says:

. . . . in the face of admission as to the desirability of getting men into the teaching profession, the records show that school administrators have permitted the percentage of male teachers in the public schools to drop from 42.8 per cent in 1880 to 17 per cent in 1926, and the decline is going on merrily. Men have been eliminated almost entirely from the elementary grades; they have only a flimsy representation in the junior high school; the day seems not far distant when they will disappear from the senior high school; and then will follow their extinction as instructors in state-supported institutions of higher learning, where the invasion of women teachers is going on at a rapid pace.³

Buchholz contends that men teachers are not only fewer in number but also inferior in quality to women teachers. He says:

Admit, frankly, that the teaching profession today is attracting high-grade women, and we must allow, in the next breath, that for actual teaching positions decidedly inferior males are being recruited.⁴

He believes an important factor in bringing about what he conceives to be an unsatisfactory situation as regards the employment of men teachers is the single salary schedule which is so prevalent today. He argues that prevailing social and economic conditions make it impossible for a man to maintain the same standard of living as a woman on the same salary. He says:

¹David Snedden, "Reorganization of Education for Children from 12 to 14 Years of Age," Educational Administration and Supervision, September, 1916, p. 427.

²H.E. Buchholz, Fads and Fallacies in Present Day Education, pp. 150-169. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1931.

³Ibid., p. 158.

⁴Ibid., p. 159.

Moreover, still having in mind that the school's obligation is primarily to the child, a differentiated salary scale is justified solely in order that male teachers may enjoy the same standard of living as their female co-workers - a thing that is impossible under an equal salary scale.¹

Perhaps it should be stated that the investigator makes no claim that the desirability of the employment of a larger percentage of men teachers has been demonstrated experimentally.

Marital Status

The data collected show that about half as many persons in the teaching profession are married as in the population in general. Of the whole population fifteen years old and over, 62.7 per cent of the males, and 61.2 per cent of the females are married.² The marital status of the 15,051 elementary teachers studied was reported as follows: married, 4,772; single, 10,264; not stated, 15. The per cent married is 31.7. Unfortunately separate data for the men and the women are not available. But it is certain that by far the larger percentage of the unmarried group are women, because the total number of men in the entire group of elementary teachers is only 3,172, and because many school systems in the state do not employ married women.

These facts call attention to one of the most vexing problems confronting school administrators in Tennessee, namely, the problem of whether or not to employ married women. Information was requested from county and city superintendents concerning regulations as to the employment of married women teachers. The replies received are summarized in Table XXXI.

TABLE XXXI

REGULATIONS CONCERNING THE EMPLOYMENT OF MARRIED WOMEN TEACHERS

Regulations	Counties		Cities	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Married women teachers may be employed	52	67.5	36	65.5
Married women teachers may not be employed	25	32.5	19	34.5
Total	77	100.0	55	100.0

¹Ibid., p. 163.

²Fifteenth Census of the United States: 1930, Vol. 3, Part 2, p. 879.

Observation leads to the belief that the tendency during the recent depression years has been to prohibit married women from teaching in Tennessee. How the question should be met in fairness to all concerned remains unanswered. As a rule, students of educational administration believe that such rigid restrictions are unwise. Concerning this question Graves says:

But the whole matter can never be settled by a wholesale condemning or favoring of married teachers, convenient as such a procedure might be administratively, but only by a study of each individual case. If a certain teacher proves to be the most satisfactory one available, her status as a married woman should not properly concern the superintendent in making his selection or in retaining her. Similarly, if a divided loyalty causes her to fall below the efficiency of other teachers, she should not be chosen or kept in the system.¹

Employment of Local Teachers

Another perplexing problem relating to administration of the teaching personnel concerns the employment of local teachers. This problem likewise has been aggravated by conditions incident to the economic depression. Of course in the early days in Tennessee certificates were valid only in the county of issue, and practically all teachers were local teachers. But in recent years a much more liberal policy has been developed. Now the tendency seems to be to go back to the plan which was followed in earlier times.

County and city superintendents were asked to report regulations concerning the employment of local teachers. The information secured is shown in Table XXXII.

TABLE XXXII

REGULATIONS CONCERNING THE EMPLOYMENT OF LOCAL TEACHERS

Regulations	Counties		Cities	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Local teachers only employed	4	5.2	2	3.6
Local teachers given preference	40	51.9	23	41.8
No preference given local teachers	33	42.9	30	54.5
Total	77	100.0	55	99.9

¹Op cit., p. 195.

It is easy to sympathize with administrative officials who feel it their duty to take care of the employment needs of worthy young people in the community. But there are obvious disadvantages to a policy which practically limits appointments to local people. If carried to its logical extreme it would mean that the trained teacher who for any reason failed to secure appointment at home would have to give up the profession which he had chosen to follow. Also such an extreme policy would tend to encourage provincialism and social inbreeding. Concerning this matter Graves says:

A candidate from the locality should never be chosen merely on the ground that she is a "home girl" or her people are heavy taxpayers, or because she is found to be in desperate financial circumstances. If teachers are to be employed from the locality they should be required to measure up in every respect to all other applicants.

In fact, it would be well to place some limit upon the number of home teachers to be permitted in any school system, even when their competency is fully equal to that of the best candidates from outside.¹

In discussing the questions of the employment of local and married-women teachers, Reeder says:

It goes without saying that qualifications should be the only criterion for determining who shall be selected for, and retained in, a teaching position. If those best qualified happen to be nonresidents, well and good; if those best qualified happen to be married (married women, of course, are meant), also well and good. General rules, therefore, which limit the choice of teachers to local, or to unmarried, persons cannot be sanctioned. Such general rules levy a high protective tariff on ability; they would prohibit a Solomon or a Socrates from being employed, if such person were not a local resident or unmarried. It is possible for discriminating school officials to select the competent married teachers from the incompetent; likewise it is possible to select the competent nonresident teachers from the incompetent. Any rule which prevents the securing of the most competent teacher is to be condemned; it is a Frankenstein.²

Procedure in Appointing and Assigning Teachers

An important problem which vitally concerns the development of teaching as a profession has to do with the procedure used in appointing teachers and assigning them to positions. Questions

¹Ibid., pp. 193-194.

²Ward G. Reeder, The Fundamentals of Public School Administration, p. 70. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930.

were directed to county and city superintendents and to a random sampling of teachers in an effort to determine current practice in regard to this matter. Replies were received from seventy-seven county superintendents, fifty-five city superintendents, and 662 teachers.

The information secured from superintendents is summarized in Table XXXIII. It will be seen that some of the averages do not total one hundred per cent. This is probably due to the fact that superintendents were confused as to the exact meaning of some of the terms used. For instance, it is not altogether clear what is the difference between "Nominated by Superintendent" and "Appointed by Superintendent but appointment confirmed or rejected by Board of Education." The probable implication here is that in the first case the nomination by the superintendent practically assures election, while in the latter case it does not. Attention is called to the rather wide variety of procedures followed, and to the considerable number of systems in which teachers are appointed and assigned to schools by the board without any participation by the superintendent.

TABLE XXXIII

PROCEDURES FOLLOWED IN APPOINTING TEACHERS AND
ASSIGNING THEM TO SCHOOLS WITHIN SYSTEM

Procedures Used	Counties		Cities	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Appointed by board of education without participation by the superintendent	16	20.8	11	20.0
Nominated by superintendent	53	68.9	40	72.7
Appointed by superintendent but appointment confirmed or rejected by board of education	40	51.9	24	43.6
Assigned to school by board of education	30	39.0	10	18.2
Assigned to school by superintendent	38	49.3	47	85.4

Teachers were asked to name the official or officials to whom they made application for a position. They replied as follows: superintendent, 461; chairman of the board of education, 209; a member of the board of education, 274; principal of school

in which position was sought, 12. These figures show the important role played by board members in the selection of teachers.

Teachers were asked to name the official or person who gave them assistance in securing their positions. Their replies were as follows: superintendent, 134; principal, 59; member of school board, 149; county officials, 27; prominent citizen, 226. The significance of the last classification, "prominent citizen" is apparent. It means that these teachers felt it was necessary to use what is commonly called a "pull" in order to secure appointment.

Teachers were asked to state the medium through which application was made for appointment. They replied as follows: personal letter of application, 178; a letter of recommendation, 94; application blank furnished by the superintendent, 222; personal interview with the superintendent, 347; personal interview with board member, 320; other mediums, 13. Here again the prominent role played by board members is evident.

The facts presented in this section bring to the forefront what many students of public education in Tennessee consider the most important problems of school administration facing the state: the problem of professionalizing and dignifying the county superintendency and defining with sufficient definiteness the duties, powers and responsibilities of the office; and the related problem of defining the exact functions which are to be performed by a school board. Until these problems are properly solved the development of the profession of teaching in Tennessee is definitely handicapped. Concerning this problem, Reeder says:

Because of his professional training, his educational experience, and especially because of the position which he holds, the superintendent of schools, with the cooperation of his principals and other administrative coworkers, should be delegated the function of selecting all teachers; it would be advisable to have such delegation made a matter of written record in the rules and regulations of the board. In fact, to give the superintendent of schools this function by state law would mean a forward step for education.¹

Prevalence of Nepotism

Information was sought concerning the prevalence of nepotism in the appointment of teachers. Of the teachers who replied to the question, 600 stated they were related to no county official; 34 stated they were related to the superintendent or a board member; 34 were related to another county official; 4 were related to both the superintendent and another county official.

¹Ibid., p. 57.

These figures call attention to a problem in the administration of the teaching personnel which one frequently hears discussed in Tennessee: the problem of the part played by local and family politics in securing appointments to teaching positions.

Problems of School Administration Noted

The study which has been made in the present chapter concerning administrative practices and procedures affecting the teaching personnel has directed attention to the following problems of school administration which vitally concern teachers and teacher education: the problem of lengthening the school term; the problem of briefness and insecurity of tenure; the problem of providing an adequate plan for financing public education; the problem of recruiting youths of ability into the profession and making conditions so attractive that they will choose to remain in the profession for an employment lifetime, unless matrimony or other circumstance prevents; the problem of attracting a larger percentage of young men of ability into the teaching profession; questions concerning the employment of married women as teachers; the problem of the employment of local teachers; the problem of professionalizing and dignifying the county superintendency and defining with sufficient definiteness the duties, powers and responsibilities of the office; the problem of defining the exact functions which are to be performed by a school board; and finally the problem of the elimination of local politics in the appointment of teachers.

CHAPTER VIII

THE PROBLEM OF SUPPLYING AN ADEQUATE TEACHING PERSONNEL

Since the advent of the depression much has been said about an alleged over-supply of teachers. Effort has been made in the present investigation to find out the facts concerning the relation of the supply of teachers to the demand for teachers in the state of Tennessee. The findings are presented in this chapter. The topics considered are: the educational qualifications of the teachers now in service; the minimum educational requirements for new teachers in the county and city systems in the state; the number of new teachers employed annually; the number of certificates issued annually; the available supply of teachers in Tennessee; the relation of the supply of teachers to the demand for teachers; and the implications of these findings for revision of the requirements for certification.

The Educational Qualifications of Teachers in Service

The educational qualifications of the teachers in service have been studied to secure a measure of the adequacy of the training of the present personnel as compared with progressive standards, and to ascertain whether or not Tennessee is utilizing to the fullest possible extent the best trained teachers available.

Three measures of the educational qualifications of elementary teachers were secured. The number of quarter hours of college credit of elementary teachers is shown in Table XXXIV.

TABLE XXXIV
NUMBER OF QUARTER HOURS OF COLLEGE CREDIT
OF 15,051 ELEMENTARY TEACHERS

Number of Hours College Credit	White Teachers	Colored Teachers	Total
0 - 14	881	210	1091
15 - 29	607	167	774
30 - 44	510	109	619
45 - 59	2702	377	3079

TABLE XXXIV (CONTINUED)

Number of Hours College Credit	White Teachers	Colored Teachers	Total
60 - 74	1347	161	1508
75 - 89	753	109	862
90 - 104	1813	254	2067
105 - 119	794	138	932
120 - 134	449	75	524
135 - 149	459	73	532
150 - 164	257	50	307
165 - 179	168	78	146
180 - 194	601	173	774
195 - 209	979	93	1072
210 - 224	229	38	267
225 - 239	130	11	141
240 - 254	85	14	99
255 - 269	28	7	35
270 - 284	17	6	23
285 and over	30	18	48
Not recorded		96	96
Total	12794	2257	15051

In this table large totals appear at the points which mark one year in college, two years in college, and four years in college. The median preparation of elementary teachers is almost one quarter less than two years in college. Of the 15,051 teachers included in the table, 7,933 have had less than two years of college training. Attention is called to the fact that almost a thousand elementary teachers have done graduate work.

Table XXXV shows the number of quarter hours of college credit in education held by elementary teachers. The table reveals two surprising facts: the very large number of elementary

TABLE XXXV

NUMBER OF QUARTER HOURS OF COLLEGE CREDIT IN
EDUCATION OF 15,051 ELEMENTARY TEACHERS

Number of Hours College Credit	White Teachers	Colored Teachers	Total
0 - 4	1163	252	1415
5 - 9	1644	192	1836
10 - 14	1419	246	1665
15 - 19	2361	335	2696
20 - 24	1883	227	2110
25 - 29	1349	266	1615

TABLE XXXV (CONTINUED)

Number of Hours College Credit	White Teachers	Colored Teachers	Total
30 - 34	954	177	1131
35 - 39	809	147	956
40 - 44	393	80	473
45 - 49	285	65	350
50 - 54	170	50	220
55 - 59	89	28	117
60 - 64	86	18	104
65 - 69	45	11	56
70 and over	144	39	183
Not recorded		124	124
Total	12794	2257	15051

teachers who have taken few or no professional courses, and the considerable number who have taken many such courses. Both of these extremes are questionable. Few if any students of school administration deny professional courses a place in the preparation of a teacher. On the other hand, there is today a definite trend towards limiting the amount of Education which may be taken by an undergraduate, particularly before entering service. Concerning this matter the National Survey of the Education of Teachers states that "The total professional work . . . can well be limited on the pre-service level to amounts much below what many students now take."¹ The University of Tennessee permits an undergraduate to take a maximum of twenty-seven quarter hours in Education.

The kind of certificate held by the elementary teachers is shown in Table XXXVI. Only 6,092 of the 15,051 elementary teachers hold the permanent certificate, which is based upon a minimum of two years in college. If two years in college should be made the minimum preparation for an elementary teacher - and this is the recommendation of the National Survey of the Education of Teachers,² then three-fifths of the elementary teachers in service in Tennessee hold certificates that do not require the standard amount of preparation.

Two measures of the training of high school teachers were secured. The number of years of college or university training

¹National Survey of Education of Teachers, Vol. III. (As read in galley proof.)

²Ibid. (As read in galley proof.)

TABLE XXXVI

KINDS OF CERTIFICATES HELD BY
15,051 ELEMENTARY TEACHERS

Kind Of Certificate Held	White Teachers	Colored Teachers	Total
Professional:			
Permanent	5258	834	6092
Four year	4362	516	4878
One year	410	74	484
Examination:			
Permanent	1246	316	1562
Four year	603	82	685
Two year	188	137	325
Permit	24	109	133
Not recorded	703	189	892
Total	12794	2257	15051

of high school teachers is shown in Table XXXVII.

TABLE XXXVII

NUMBER OF YEARS OF COLLEGE TRAINING OF
HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS

Years of College Training	Number	Per Cent
0 - 1	1	0.0
1 - 1.5	7	0.3
2 - 2.5	44	2.1
3 - 3.5	65	3.2
4 - 4.5	1613	78.4
5 - 5.5	242	11.8
6 - 6.5	55	2.7
7 - 7.5	30	1.5
No record	30	
Total	2087	100.0

The degrees held by high school teachers are presented in Table XXXVIII. It is, of course, heartening to note that only about six per cent of the high school teachers in Tennessee have less than four years of college training, which is the amount almost universally required. But if Tennessee wishes to keep abreast of progressive trends in teacher education she still

needs to make much progress. For a number of years California has required five years training of high school teachers. Concerning this matter the National Survey of the Education of Teachers recommends: "Immediate gradual extension of the period of training of secondary teachers to five years."¹ It will be noted that only 7.4 per cent of the high school teachers in Tennessee hold the Master's degree.

TABLE XXXVIII
DEGREES HELD BY HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS

Degrees Held	Number	Per Cent
None	124	6.0
Bachelor's	1757	85.4
Master's	153	7.4
Doctor's	--	--
Other degrees	25	1.2
No Record	7	
Total	2066	100.0

The number of years of college training possessed by the high school principals is shown in Table XXXIX. It appears that approximately twenty-one per cent of the high school principals of Tennessee possess less than four years of college training, and approximately seventy-five per cent less than five years of college training.

TABLE XXXIX
NUMBER OF YEARS OF COLLEGE TRAINING
OF HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Years	Number	Per Cent
0 - 1	2	0.4
1 - 1.5	8	1.4
2 - 2.5	47	8.4
3 - 3.5	56	10.0
4 - 4.5	301	53.8
5 - 5.5	102	18.2
6 - 6.5	17	3.0
7 - 7.5	27	4.8
Total	560	100.0

¹Ibid. (As read in galley proof.)

The degrees held by high school principals are shown in Table XL. The table shows that nearly one-fourth of the number do not possess a degree, and that 82.6 per cent have less than a Master's degree.

TABLE XL
DEGREES HELD BY HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Degrees	Number	Per Cent
None	139	24.2
Bachelor's	335	58.3
Master's	93	16.2
Doctor's	1	0.2
Other Degrees	6	1.2
Total	574	100.1

The number of years of college training of county and city superintendents is shown in Table XLI.

TABLE XLI
NUMBER OF YEARS OF COLLEGE TRAINING OF
COUNTY AND CITY SUPERINTENDENTS

Years Of Training	County Superintendents		City Superintendents	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
0 - 1	2	2.2	1	1.6
1	2	2.2	2	3.3
2	3	3.2	1	1.6
3	12	12.9	1	1.6
4	54	58.1	31	50.8
5	11	11.8	19	31.5
6	5	5.4	3	4.9
7				
and over	4	4.3	3	4.9
No record	2		26	
Total	95	100.1	87	100.3

Table XLII shows the degrees held by county and city superintendents as reported in 1934. Exactly what is included under the miscellaneous classification, "Other Degrees" is not

TABLE XLII

DEGREES HELD BY COUNTY AND CITY SUPERINTENDENTS

Degrees	County Superintendents		City Superintendents	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
None	22	23.7	5	8.2
Bachelor's	57	61.3	31	50.8
Master's	12	12.9	23	37.7
Doctor's	--	--	1	1.6
Other degrees	2	2.1	1	1.6
No record	2		26	
Total	95	100.0	87	99.9

known. It will be noted that only about fifteen per cent of the county superintendents and forty-one per cent of the city superintendents have the Master's degree. Several states now require one year of graduate work as minimum preparation for administrative positions as principals or superintendents.

Minimum Educational Requirements for New Teachers

Not only are there state requirements for certification, but there are also minimum educational requirements for new teachers set up by county and city systems. These minimum standards may be formulated in board rulings or they may merely represent prevailing practice. County and city superintendents were asked to state the minimum requirements for appointment in their separate school systems. The information received from county superintendents is presented in Table XLIII.

TABLE XLIII

MINIMUM EDUCATIONAL REQUIREMENTS FOR NEW TEACHERS
IN SEVENTY-SEVEN COUNTY SYSTEMS

Minimum Requirement	Elementary School		Junior and Two Year High School		Senior High School	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
One year college	44	57.1	1	1.3	1	1.3
Two years college	6	7.8	19	24.7	-	-
Four years college	5	6.5	--	--	70	90.9

TABLE XLIII (CONTINUED)

Minimum Requirement	Elementary School		Junior and Two Year High School		Senior High School	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Eighteen quarter hours in Education	2	2.6	--	--	--	--
Examination elementary certificate	3	3.9	--	--	--	--
Permanent professional elementary certificate	1	1.3	--	--	--	--
One year professional elementary certificate	23	29.9	--	--	--	--
Examination high school certificate	--	--	1	1.3	2	2.6
Four year high school certificate	--	--	--	--	1	1.3
Permanent professional high school certificate	--	--	17	22.1	--	--

The information secured from city superintendents appears in Table XLIV.

TABLE XLIV

MINIMUM EDUCATIONAL REQUIREMENTS FOR NEW TEACHERS
IN FIFTY-FIVE CITY SYSTEMS

Minimum Requirement	Elementary School		Junior and Two Year High School		Senior High School	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
One year college	10	18.2	--	--	--	--
Two years college	19	34.5	3	5.5	--	--
Four years college	--	--	--	--	36	65.5
Four year professional elementary certificate	8	14.5	--	--	--	--
One year professional elementary certificate	14	25.5	--	--	--	--
Examination high school certificate	--	--	--	--	1	1.8
Four year high school certificate	--	--	1	1.8	1	1.8
Permanent professional high school certificate	--	--	5	9.1	2	3.6
Not reporting	4	7.3	46*	83.6	15	27.3

*Very few city systems have two-year or junior high schools.

It will be noted that over half the counties and one-fifth of the cities have a requirement of only one year in college for teaching in the elementary schools, and a number have requirements even lower. It is certain that if the school systems of Tennessee keep abreast of progressive trends in teacher preparation, many of them will have to raise their minimum requirements for new teachers. The National Survey of the Education of Teachers recommends: "The adoption of the four year standard as the minimum for all teachers except rural teachers where an intermediate position of two or three years may be temporarily set up."¹

New Teachers Employed

County and city superintendents were asked to state the number of new teachers "with experience" and "without experience" appointed for the school year 1933-34. The information which county superintendents gave appears in Table XLV.

TABLE XLV
NEW TEACHERS APPOINTED IN SEVENTY-SEVEN
COUNTY SYSTEMS, 1933-34

Kind Of School	Number Of New Teachers Appointed	With Experience		Without Experience	
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Elementary school	3905	2916	74.6	989	25.4
Junior high school	67	55	82.1	12	17.9
Senior high school	649	581	89.5	68	10.5
Total	4621	3552		1069	

The information received from city superintendents is shown in Table XLVI.

These tables show that in county elementary schools 3,905 new elementary teachers and in city systems 296 new elementary teachers were employed in 1933-34, which is a total of 4,201. Since all the systems were not included in these tables (there are 95 county and 87 city systems), and since the total number of elementary teachers employed was 15,051, it appears that probably one-third of the staff of the elementary schools were new in their

¹Ibid. (As read in galley proof.)

TABLE XLVI

NEW TEACHERS APPOINTED IN FIFTY-FIVE
CITY SYSTEMS, 1933-34

Kind Of School	Number Of New Teachers Appointed	With Experience		Without Experience	
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Elementary school	296	226	76.5	70	23.7
Junior high school	12	11	91.6	1	8.4
Senior high school	63	54	86.7	9	14.3
Total	371	291		80	

positions in 1933-34. These facts give further evidence of briefness of tenure in elementary schools.

But in a study which is concerned primarily with the problems incident to teacher education the more significant facts revealed by these tables are contained in the columns which show the data concerning the number of new teachers without previous experience who were employed. Seventy-seven county systems employed only 1069 inexperienced new teachers in 1933-34; fifty-five city systems employed only 80. The total is only 1,149. The total number of inexperienced high school teachers employed was only 90. These totals, however, do not cover the entire state. It is known that the total number of inexperienced teachers employed in 1932-33 was 1,572. Furthermore, the general trend has been to employ fewer inexperienced teachers each year. (See Table XII, Chapter III.)

New Certificates Issued

The number of certificates issued yearly to persons who had not held certificates before gives an idea of the number of new recruits desiring to enter the profession. The total number of elementary certificates issued by the Division of Certification during the period from January 1, 1933 to January 1, 1934 was as follows:

Permanent Profession Elementary Certificates	1851
Four Year Professional Elementary Certificates	1307
One Year Professional Elementary Certificates	324
Examination Elementary Certificates	285
Total	3767

The number of high school certificates issued during the year follows:

Permanent Professional High School Certificates	857
Four Year Professional High School Certificates	93
Professional High School Certificates Issued according to Act of 1913	9
Examination High School Certificates	71
Total	1030

A check has been made of a large sampling of the certificates issued in 1933 by the Director of Research and the Director of Certification in the State Department of Education. Based upon this check, an official estimate has been made of the number of the various kinds of certificates which were issued to persons who had not held a certificate previously. The estimate for elementary certificates follows: permanent professional, 1573; four-year professional, 1255; one-year professional, 324; examination 185; total, 3337. The estimate for high school certificates follows: permanent professional, 771; four-year professional, 93; professional issued according to act of 1913, 0; examination, 103, total 966.

When the data concerning the number of inexperienced teachers who were employed in 1933-34 are compared with the official estimate of the number of persons never before certificated who secured certificates in 1933, it appears that fully twice as many elementary teachers and five or six times as many high school teachers were certificated as were able to secure teaching positions.

The Available Supply of Teachers

This section presents the results of the study of the available supply of teachers in Tennessee. A committee of three, of which the writer was a member, was appointed by the Commissioner of Education to collaborate with the research staff of the state department and the Supervisor of Certification in an exhaustive study of the relation of the supply of teachers to the demand for teachers. The investigation extended through a period of several months.

The methods employed will be briefly described. First, lists of all the teachers who taught in the public schools of Tennessee in 1933-34 were prepared by the Elementary School Supervisor and the High School Supervisor. Second, an entirely new set of records were prepared for the office of the Supervisor of Certification. Previously there had been a card in the files for each certificate which had ever been issued since records

were first kept in the state department; in the new files a card was prepared for each person legally certificated to teach in 1933-34. Cards were not prepared for persons who no longer held valid certificates. Furthermore, all the certificates held by a given person were placed on his one card. Thus it was possible to ascertain the numbers of persons holding certificates, while in the old files it was only possible to find out the number of certificates which had been issued. Third, the cards of all employed teachers were marked on the new records in the office of the Supervisor of Certification. Fourth, county lists were made of all teachers who, according to available records, were unemployed in 1933-34; and these lists were sent to county, and in some cases to city superintendents, with the request that certain information be supplied: Was a given person dead? Was he teaching even though no record to that effect had reached the state department? Was he definitely lost to the profession for any reason? Or was he in reality an unemployed teacher who had desired a teaching position and had been unable to secure one? Practically every superintendent cooperated fully in the study, though in a few cases it was necessary for an investigator to make a trip in order to secure the desired information. Naturally there were some persons listed concerning whom superintendents were not able to find any information, but on the whole rather remarkably complete returns were finally secured. The findings in the entire investigation which are of significance in the present study will now be presented.

In 1933-34 the number of elementary certificates in force was 24,675. These certificates were distributed as follows: permanent professional certificates, 9,698; four-year professional certificates, 8,860; one-year professional certificates, 722; permanent examination certificates, 3,583; four-year examination certificates, 1,149; two-year examination certificates, 530; permits, 133. To those holding elementary certificates in force in 1933-34 must be added 980 persons who taught in cities with over 7,500 population but held no certificates. This makes a gross supply of 25,655 elementary teachers. According to the reports which were received from superintendents, 1,800 of these certificated persons were lost to the profession: some of them were dead, some were women with families, some had entered other vocations. If these 1,800 who were lost to the profession are subtracted from the gross total, there remains a net total of 23,855 persons available for elementary teaching positions in 1933-34. Of these 23,855 persons, 252 held administrative positions in 1933-34, which reduces the total number of available elementary teachers to 23,603.

In 1933-34 the number of high school certificates in force was 9,948. These certificates were distributed as follows: permanent professional certificates, 7,231; four-year professional certificates, 402; permanent examination certificates, 1,072; two-year examination certificates, 7; four-year professional certificates, issued under the law of 1913, 177; five-year professional certificates, 1,059. To those holding high school certificates in force in 1933-34 must be added 261 persons who taught without certificates in independent city systems. This makes a gross supply of 10,209 high school teachers. According to the reports which were received from county superintendents, 827 of these certificated persons were lost to the profession. This leaves a net total of 9,382 persons eligible for high school teaching positions in 1933-34.

The Relation of Supply to Demand

According to available records, there were, in 1933-34, 15,051 persons employed in elementary teaching positions in Tennessee. If all the persons legally certificated are regarded as qualified teachers, then there was a surplus of 8,554 elementary teachers in 1933-34. But if the available supply is studied in terms of more recent trends an entirely different picture appears. As noted above, the National Survey of the Education of Teachers recommends "the adoption of the four year standard as the minimum for all teachers except possibly rural teachers where an intermediate position of two or three years may be temporarily set up." If two years in college is accepted as the minimum requirement, then there was a shortage of 5,353 qualified elementary teachers in Tennessee in 1933-34: only 9,698 held permanent certificates which are based upon a minimum of two years in college, while 15,051 teachers were employed. And if four years in college is accepted as the minimum requirement, then Tennessee had a shortage of 12,683 qualified elementary teachers in 1933-34: only 2,368 of the certificated teachers had four years of college training.

According to available records, there were, in 1933-34, 3,341 persons employed in high school teaching positions. If the 9,382 persons eligible for high school teaching positions are regarded as qualified teachers, then there was a surplus of 6,041 high school teachers in 1933-34.

But if the available supply of teachers is studied in the light of more recent trends in teacher education, a different picture is secured. California has for years made five years in college the minimum training of a high school teacher. As noted in the foregoing, the National Survey of the Education of Teachers

recommends: "Immediate gradual extension of the period of training of secondary teachers to five years." Of the gross supply of 10,929 high school teachers, only 576 had over four years college training, 7,370 had four years, 163 had three years, 332 had two years, 45 had one year, and 1718 had no college training.

It is evident that only a limited number of Tennessee teachers would be eligible to teach in high school in California. Only 576 have had over four years of college training; and the number who have had five years is of course much smaller. If Tennessee continues to regard four years of college training as adequate preparation for a high school teacher, then she has five qualified high school teachers for every two high school teaching positions. But if Tennessee elects to join the group of progressive states which require five years training of their high school teachers, then she has at most only a few hundred qualified teachers for her secondary schools.

There is another phase of the relationship of supply to demand which deserves consideration. Is Tennessee demanding the best that she has available in supplying her need for teachers? The evidence is clear that in many cases she is not. Attention has already been called to the low educational requirements for new teachers which are in force in a number of the counties and cities in the state. There were in 1933-34, 9,698 elementary teachers who held permanent professional certificates, based upon a minimum of two years in college; but the record shows that only 6,092 of that group were employed in 1933-34. This means that 3,606 of those best qualified elementary teachers were denied employment, while the positions were given to others with less training.

A problem in school administration is clearly indicated by the foregoing facts. The state of Tennessee will undoubtedly suffer educationally by failing to utilize to the fullest possible extent the best trained teachers who are available.

In considering the question of demand for teachers, there are a few facts concerning Tennessee to which attention might be called. It will be recalled that in 1930 Tennessee stood 38th in per cent of school population in daily attendance, and 48th in per cent of total enrollment in high school (Chapter I). It is clear that in 1930 there was room for improvement. Evidence is available which shows that improvement has been made. For instance, there was an increase in high school attendance from 64,693 in 1930-31 to 70,358 in 1932-33. If this improvement in school attendance continues until Tennessee takes her place among the leading states in the Union educationally, it will undoubtedly mean that more teachers will be required for the public schools.

Implications Concerning Certification

Undoubtedly a state has a double obligation in formulating laws concerning the certification of teachers: it must be fair to the children, and it must be fair to the teachers. Manifestly it should insure by legal enactments that the best possible teachers will be provided for the public schools. But it should not demand higher qualifications of teachers than it is willing to pay for.

Likewise, individual systems have an obligation to provide the most capable teachers obtainable, but they too should not demand qualifications which they are not willing to pay for. The data presented in Chapter VII show clearly the salary situation in Tennessee at the present time.

If Tennessee would meet her obligations to her youth and to her teachers, she must first formulate a plan for adequately financing her public schools, and she must then raise her standards for certification in accordance with progressive trends to which attention has already been called in the present chapter. Likewise, if individual systems would meet their obligations to both pupils and teachers, they must formulate plans to do their part towards financing their schools, and many of them must raise standards for new teachers.

The data presented in this chapter indicate quite definitely that Tennessee is now in a position to raise her standards for certification materially. The entire number of inexperienced teachers who secured elementary school positions was considerably less than the number of persons who obtained permanent elementary certificates. The number who received high school positions was hardly more than a tenth of the number who obtained permanent high school certificates.

If the number certificated each year with two years of college training for elementary teachers and four years of college training for high school teachers is greater than the demand for new teachers, then the state need no longer issue certificates based upon less training. This means that Tennessee is in position to discontinue her examination certificate for elementary teachers, and her professional elementary certificate based upon one quarter in college and one year in college.

She is in position to discontinue the high school professional certificate based upon two years in college. She can also discontinue her examination certificate for high school teachers, though it would probably be wise to retain the method of examination as a means of certifying teachers in individual subjects. Retention of this form of examination certificate will enable

teachers to qualify in special subjects by private study, thus acting as a stimulus to continued growth among high school teachers, and obviating the unwise restriction against teachers instructing in a subject in which they have not specialized in college.

The National Survey of the Education of Teachers recommends that the permanent certificate either be discontinued entirely or that it not be issued until a teacher has had a certain number of years of successful experience. This is to prevent persons who prove to be incompetent from holding a legal license to teach for life. In order to standardize nomenclature throughout the country, the National Survey suggests that a certificate based upon less than four years in college be designated as a "limited" certificate; that a certificate based upon four years in college be called a "standard" certificate; and that a certificate based upon a year or more of graduate work be called an "advanced" certificate. Tennessee is in position to profit by these suggestions if she so desires.

The report of the Tennessee Educational Commission, which was created by the legislature of 1933¹ to study educational conditions and to recommend legislation, makes the following recommendations concerning certification:

It is proposed that the minimum training for the various types of personnel certificated hereafter be as follows:

(1) Elementary teachers should have four years of college as an ultimate standard, but for the immediate future it seems advisable to make two years the minimum with special training in elementary education.

(2) High School Teachers should have four years in college with special training in secondary education.

(3) Elementary Principals of three-or-more teacher schools, High School Principals, and Supervisors should have a master's degree with special training in the work to be done.

(4) Superintendents should have a master's degree with a major in school administration.

(5) Teachers in Institutions of Higher Learning should have a doctor of philosophy degree or the equivalent as evidenced by scholarly attainments and research with special training in the field in which instruction is to be given.

(6) Administrative Officers in Institutions of Higher Learning should have a doctor of philosophy degree or the equivalent as evidenced by scholarly attainments and research with special training in college administration.

¹ Acts of 1933, chap. 104.

(7) Staff of the State Department of Education - The Commissioner of Education should have a doctor of philosophy degree or the equivalent as evidenced by scholarly attainments and research with a major in school administration. A doctor of philosophy degree or the equivalent as evidenced by scholarly attainments and research should be required for the division heads as an ultimate standard, but it seems advisable for the immediate future to make a master's degree, with special training in the particular field in which the individual is to work, the minimum standard.

It is to be understood definitely that none of the above proposals or others which may be made are to be retroactive with respect to the present personnel.¹

The data presented in the present chapter indicate that these recommendations are on the whole reasonable and attainable. The various levels of preparation suggested are certainly attainable within the reasonably near future. But a question is raised as to the wisdom of some of the rigid requirements of highly specialized training in a narrow field. While it is certainly desirable that teachers and administrative officers shall have specialized training in the specific work they do, it does not always prove practicable. It is a well known fact that many American teachers are never able to secure the specific type of position for which they expressed a preference when preparing to enter the profession. Then on the graduate level, few students are in position to know that they will be selected as administrative officers in institutions of higher learning. A person thoroughly educated in a definite field of endeavor should be able to prepare himself by private study and by application to occupy any position within or intimately related to his field. In an address, delivered before the annual meeting of the American Association of Teachers Colleges, Judd spoke as follows concerning the question of the rigid requirement of special training for teaching positions:

I should like to record at this point my utter dissent from the dogma long current in the American educational system that a teacher should be allowed to teach only those subjects in which he majored or minored in college. This dogma deliberately excludes the possibility of a teacher-in-service ever making himself competent in new lines. If I had my way about it, I should try to make it necessary for every member of the teaching profession to do something wholly novel at least once every two years.²

¹Report of the Tennessee Educational Commission. Part II, Recommendations Affecting Public Education in Tennessee, pp. 64-65.

²C.H. Judd, "Next Steps in the Improvement of Teacher Training," Twelfth Yearbook, The American Association of Teachers Colleges, p. 29.

CHAPTER IX

TEACHER EDUCATION

Chapters V and VI, which relate to the Development of Teaching as a Profession in Tennessee, are devoted to a study of the historical development of agencies for teacher education in Tennessee. This chapter presents the results of a study of present conditions in teacher education in the state, based upon an analysis of information secured during the scholastic year 1933-34. The study was made in order to determine the problems in teacher education which the state faces today. As in the study of their historical development, the agencies are again classified into two groups: those which are primarily for the preparation of teachers to enter the profession, and those which are designed primarily for the training of teachers in service. Because of their greater importance in the program of teacher education at the present time, the study of agencies for the preparation of teachers to enter the profession is presented first.

The Preparation of Teachers in Educational Institutions

Trends in enrollments.- At the University of Tennessee records were available which made it possible to tabulate the total enrollments in courses in Education in both summer and regular sessions from the summer of 1926 through the summer of 1934. These data are presented in Table XLVII.

It will be noted that the enrollment in Education in the summer quarter of 1934-35 was 648, which was only thirty per cent of the enrollment of 2167 in the summer quarter of 1926-27. But the number of students enrolled in the summer quarter of 1934-35 was 1198, an increase of three per cent over the enrollment of 1159 in 1926 (Table LVIX).

Equally surprising totals are revealed for the three regular quarters, the spring term, and the total enrollments for the regular sessions. Enrollments in education courses in the spring term decreased from 556 in 1927-28 to 195 in 1933-34; while total enrollments increased from 208 in 1927-28 to 224 in 1933-34 (Table LVIX). Total enrollments in education courses declined from 2,786 during the regular session of 1927-28 to 1010 during the regular session of 1933-34, a decrease of sixty-three per cent; while enrollments in the University for the same

TABLE XLVII
STUDENT ENROLLMENTS IN EDUCATION COURSES, UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE, 1926-35

Year	Summer Quarter	Regular Session				Totals Regular Session
		Fall Quarter	Winter Quarter	Spring Quarter	Spring Term For Teachers	
1926-27	2167	653	626	707	556	2786
1927-28	1563	693	736	801	418	2606
1928-29	1624	657	772	759		
1929-30	1592	387	531	600	522	2040
1930-31	1356	367	497	598	369	1831
1931-32	1052	429	549	645	167	1790
1932-33	1164	355	401	500	148	1408
1933-34	650	248	258	309	195	1010
1934-35	648					

periods declined from 2,331 to 2,014, a decrease of only thirteen per cent.

While similar data were not secured at other institutions, the belief was expressed by college administrators generally that a similar decline in the proportion of students taking education courses has occurred in a number of the other institutions of the state.

While the situation here revealed may be surprising to some, it should probably not be viewed with alarm, because there is no evidence that too few students are studying education to supply the need for teachers. No doubt, too, the decline in enrollment can be explained partly by the fact that fewer students are taking education with a non-vocational intent, and that fewer students are looking upon teaching as a stepping stone to other pursuits because of the smallness of the demand for teachers.

Types of institutions attended by Tennessee teachers.- Effort was made to determine the types of institutions of higher learning which have been attended by the teachers and administrators now in service in Tennessee. The information secured concerning the colleges which had been attended by the elementary teachers in service in 1933-34 is presented in Table XLVIII.

TABLE XLVIII
TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS ATTENDED BY 15,051
ELEMENTARY TEACHERS

Type of College Attended	White Teachers	Colored Teachers	Total
University of Tennessee	2565	--	2565
State Teachers College (including Tennessee Polytechnic Institute)	1251	1334	2585
Private and Church Colleges	8838	1751	10589
Institutions outside of Tennessee	7385	128	7513
Not reported	366	127	493
Total number of teachers	12794	2257	15051

Table XLIX shows the types of institutions from which high school teachers in service in 1933-34 had secured degrees.

The types of institutions from which high school principals received degrees are shown in Table L.

Table LI shows the types of institutions from which county and city superintendents received degrees.

TABLE XLIX

TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS FROM WHICH HIGH SCHOOL
TEACHERS RECEIVED DEGREES

Institutions	Number	Per Cent
State University	443	23.3
Teacher Training College	566	29.8
Private or Church College	892	47.0
No record	49	
Total	1900	100.0

TABLE L

TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS FROM WHICH HIGH SCHOOL
PRINCIPALS RECEIVED DEGREES

Institutions	Number	Per Cent
State University	65	15.2
Teacher Training College	166	38.8
Private or Church College	197	46.0
Total	428	100.0

TABLE LI

TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS FROM WHICH COUNTY AND
CITY SUPERINTENDENTS RECEIVED DEGREES

Type of Institution	County Superintendents		City Superintendents	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
State Institutions Out- side of Tennessee	3	3.8	9	16.7
University of Tennessee	23	29.1	12	22.2
State Teachers Colleges (including Tennessee Polytechnic Institute)	47	59.5	40	74.1
Private and Denomina- tional Colleges	46	58.2	34	62.9

Certain rather surprising facts appear in these tables: the exceedingly important part taken by private colleges in the education of the employed personnel of the public schools of Tennessee, the rather important role of the state university, and the relatively small part played by the state teachers colleges. In Table XVIII (Chapter VI) attention was directed to the small percentage of the elementary teachers in 1921-22 who had had normal school training. Table XLVIII shows that an even smaller percentage of the elementary teachers in 1933-34 had attended state teachers colleges.

It is interesting to note that a much smaller percentage of elementary teachers had attended teachers colleges than of superintendents. Hardly ten per cent of the elementary teachers had attended teachers colleges, while 59.5 per cent of the county superintendents and 74.1 per cent of the city superintendents reported that they had secured college degrees from state teachers colleges.

It appears that the total number of white elementary school teachers who had attended teachers colleges was hardly one-half the number who had attended the state university, one-seventh the number who had attended private and church colleges, one-sixth the number who had attended institutions outside the state, and one-tenth of the total number of white elementary teachers in the state.

A decidedly better showing is made by the teachers colleges in the preparation of high school teachers and high school principals. According to the records, 29.8 per cent of the high school teachers, and 38.8 per cent of the high school principals in 1933-34 had secured degrees from teachers colleges.

These facts indicate that the teachers colleges in Tennessee have not succeeded in any large measure in performing the function for which they were primarily established, namely, the preparation of elementary teachers. They have attained, on the other hand, a greater measure of success in training high school teachers and school administrators, functions for which they were not primarily designed.

The general situation in 1933-34.- During the school year 1933-34 the investigator visited each of the thirty-nine colleges in Tennessee which are accredited by the State Department of Education. There are thirty-one private and eight state institutions. The private institutions may be classified as follows: seventeen senior colleges and eight junior colleges for white students, four senior colleges and two junior colleges for negroes. The state institutions may be classified as follows: the state university, the so-called polytechnic institute, three teachers

colleges, and two junior colleges - all for white students; and a senior college for colored students.

Detailed information was not secured concerning items which are covered in the annual reports of accrediting agencies. Data were sought which would reveal, in some measure at least, the part played by each institution in the program of teacher education and the general program of higher education in the state. The courses given in Education in each institution in 1933-34 and the enrollments in these courses were secured as an indication of its offering in teacher preparation. It is recognized that academic subjects play an essential part in the education of a teacher, but to list all such courses offered in each institution with the enrollments in these courses would be an enormous undertaking; and furthermore, it would be impossible to determine the number of those taking such subjects who are preparing to be teachers. The geographical distribution of the student enrollment in each college in 1933-34 was secured as an indication of the part taken by the institution in the general program of higher education in the state. These data are presented in Chapter X.

In general the year 1933-34 was a difficult one for the colleges of Tennessee. Many of the private colleges were forced to operate with greatly diminished incomes. The state colleges, which had never enjoyed adequate support, were faced with the trying situation of having to operate on appropriations which were less than half the amounts they had received during the preceding biennium.

Private colleges in Tennessee vary all the way from distinguished institutions like Vanderbilt University and George Peabody College for Teachers to small schools so weak one is amazed they continue to exist. Some of the private colleges have beautiful campuses and splendid physical plants. At the other extreme, at least two or three of them are housed in buildings which are inadequate according to modern standards.

All of the state colleges have attractive, some of them beautiful, campuses. All of them have physical plants which are modern and adequate, or almost adequate to their needs, according to the statements of their officials. The training of the faculties of the teachers colleges is shown in Table LII.

Expressed in percentages the totals are as follows: doctor's degree, 18.9 per cent; two to three years of graduate study, 18 per cent; one to two years of graduate study, 51.3 per cent; less than one year of graduate study, 6.3 per cent; bachelor's degree only, 4.3 per cent; no degree, 1.7 per cent. The National Survey of the Education of Teachers reports the preparation of

TABLE LII

TRAINING OF THE FACULTIES OF THE
TENNESSEE TEACHERS COLLEGES

Training	Institutions				Total
	State Teachers College Johnson City	State Teachers College Murfreesboro	State Teachers College Memphis	Austin Peay Normal School	
Doctor's degree	4	7	10	1	22
Two to three years graduate study	8	5	6	2	21
One to two years graduate study	18	15	16	11	60
Less than one year graduate study	4	0	2	1	7
Bachelor's degree only	0	2	1	2	5
No degree	0	0	2	0	2
Total	34	29	37	17	117

3,866 faculty members in twenty-eight selected teachers colleges and normal schools as follows: Doctor's, 25.2 per cent; two years above Bachelor's, 21.3 per cent; Master's 38.3 per cent; Bachelor's degree, 12.1 per cent; no degree, 3.1 per cent.¹ The Tennessee institutions have a slightly lower percentage with the Doctor's degree, 18.9 per cent as compared with 25.2; and also a lower percentage with less than one year of graduate study, 12.1 per cent as compared with 15.2. Although this might be called a fairly creditable showing for Tennessee institutions, 81.1 per cent of the faculty members of these colleges have less preparation than the Doctor's degree or its equivalent, which is the minimum education recommended by the Tennessee Educational Commission for instructors and administrative officers of institutions of higher learning (Chapter VIII). The three state teachers colleges are fully accredited members of the American Association of Teachers Colleges.²

¹Op. cit. (As read in galley-proof.)

²Yearbook, American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1934.

There seems to be a definite tendency, especially in the stronger institutions of the state, to discourage premature specialization among students preparing to teach. An example of this tendency is found at the University of Tennessee where there is a regulation to the effect that no undergraduate may take over twenty-seven quarter hours in Education, not including pure Psychology. The aim is to confine undergraduate courses to the training of classroom teachers, and to reserve all courses designed for supervisory and administrative officers for the graduate school. The tendency here noted is in harmony with recommendations of the National Survey of the Education of Teachers, which are as follows:

The total professional work. . . . can well be limited on the pre-service level to amounts much below what many students now take. Much of the technical and specific professional course work in education and psychology should be provided on graduate levels or in summer sessions where students have greater maturity.¹

All save two of the thirty-nine colleges offered courses in Education in 1933-34. One of the schools not offering education is the University of the South, at Sewanee, which is owned by the Episcopal Church, and consists of a liberal arts college and a theological school. The other is Scarritt College, at Nashville, a small school of high standing belonging to the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, which enrolls only senior college and graduate students who are preparing to do social work and lay work in the church. Vanderbilt University has voted to abandon teacher education after 1933-34. The statements concerning Scarritt College and Vanderbilt University are however somewhat misleading, as students in both of these institutions are privileged to take courses in George Peabody College, all three schools being located in the same section of Nashville. That some Vanderbilt students avail themselves of the opportunity to take courses at Peabody is shown by the following records for the year 1933-34: in the fall quarter eighteen Vanderbilt students took twenty courses at Peabody; in the winter quarter twenty-three students took twenty-four courses; in the spring quarter twelve students took thirteen courses. It should be stated that Peabody students are also at liberty to take courses at Vanderbilt.

There is a definite tendency to introduce student teaching into the teacher education programs of Tennessee colleges. There is a general feeling that student teaching will be made a

¹Op. cit. (As read in galley proof.)

required course for certification in the state, though of course the legislature will decide when this change is made in the certification requirement, or will delegate responsibility for deciding.

The University of Tennessee conducts its student teaching in the Knoxville city schools. The work is under the supervision of professors in the College of Education, and under the personal direction of selected classroom teachers who serve as critic teachers. Each city teacher who directs the work of a student is paid a certain amount by the University. University officials regard the present plan as on the whole satisfactory, though there is a felt need for a campus school to be used mainly for demonstration teaching and experimentation.

Each of the state teachers colleges has a rather large school located on the campus which is utilized for observation and student teaching. The campus schools are not experimental schools. The aim is to make of them typical public schools of the better sort. The critic teachers are all specially trained for their work, practically all of them holding the Master's degree. The opinion was expressed by some of the officials interviewed that eventually the campus school should be used exclusively for observation and assistant teaching, and that the public schools should be used for the practice in teaching an entire class. However, these officials stated that, for the present, the campus schools are able to provide adequate facilities for directed teaching. The National Survey of the Education of Teachers reports concerning the merits of neighborhood schools and campus schools for student teaching: "Where possible to utilize public affiliated schools for actual practice, it is desirable to make the campus school largely a laboratory agency for demonstration and experimentation."¹

The Austin Peay Normal School utilizes the public schools of Clarksville for the small amount of directed teaching which is taken in the school. The state college for negroes uses certain public schools in Nashville. Student teaching is not offered in Tennessee Polytechnic Institute or in the University of Tennessee Junior College.

The private colleges which offer student teaching all utilize neighboring public schools. It is simply stating a fact to say that some of the work observed in private colleges was not of a satisfactory character. In some cases there was little or no supervision by college authorities. In some cases the teaching conditions were very poor. For instance, one college was using a

¹Op. cit. (As read in galley proof.)

neighboring rural school which was a barnlike building with one large room in which two teachers held forth at the same time.

There is a wide variety of practices in the state as to the amount of directed teaching which each student does, and as to the amount of college credit which is allowed for the work. The amount of teaching done by each student varies from ten or fifteen clock hours to 120 or even more clock hours. One large institution in the state gives six quarter hours credit for teaching one hour a day for a quarter; several institutions give only three quarter hours credit for the same amount of teaching.

It would be difficult to imagine a more chaotic situation than that which obtains in the practice teaching work in Tennessee colleges. There is undoubtedly a crying need for standardization of the work by some central agency such as the state department of education. The American Association of Teachers Colleges recommends ninety clock hours of teaching by each student in either a properly equipped campus school or a public school in which favorable conditions for teaching are maintained. The National Survey of the Education of Teachers endorses this requirement, though it makes the additional recommendation that, where conditions will permit, a student should teach until he attains a certain minimum efficiency rather than a specified number of clock hours. The privilege of giving student teaching should be denied colleges which cannot meet minimum requirements set up by standardizing agencies.

An interesting organization of the student teaching program is in operation at State Teachers College, Johnson City. The course of training in student teaching is divided into four phases. These are as follows: 1. Observation of an entire class. 2. Case study of an individual child in the class. This includes getting acquainted with the child, observing him on the playground, perhaps visiting in his home, giving him standardized tests if it is deemed necessary in order to complete the case study, and finally individual instruction of the child, usually in the subject or subjects which seem to be giving him the most trouble. 3. Assisting the critic teacher by helping with the work in general, and by instructing a small group selected from the class. 4. Teaching the entire class. The general plan is to cover the first three of these steps in a first course, and the last step in a second course; though there is some variation from this procedure. If the plan of utilizing the public schools is introduced, then the first three phases of the training will be given in the campus school, and the fourth phase in a public school.

Peabody College since its foundation sixty years ago has consistently favored demonstration teaching by experts instead of

directed teaching by students. There is on the college campus a large private school known as the Peabody Demonstration School. Although the college catalogue lists certain courses under the title "directed teaching," the facts are that these courses are very largely directed observation with a very small amount of actual teaching by students.

That the position held so consistently by Peabody in this matter is not without support in informed circles is attested by the following quotations taken from the National Survey of the Education of Teachers:

There should be constant opportunity for students to observe good teaching. Part of this observation should be the gradual growth of individual students, systematically scheduled to spend a stated number of periods each week in training school classes, and part of it should be class or group observation with college instructors in charge.

In recent years it has been suggested that prospective teachers would learn more by constant supervised observation of good teaching than by supervised courses in practice teaching. The respondents (to a questionnaire) in the main are opposed to this proposal but with reservations.

Lacking experimental evidence of the value of directed supervised observation compared with practice teaching, it would appear that the latter should be stressed. But periodic tests of competency should be given which should result in variations in amounts and lengths of practice teaching for individual students.¹

Very few examples of so-called professionalization of subject matter in academic courses were reported. No evidence was found which would warrant a belief that this idea is considered of significance in teacher education in Tennessee.

Course offerings in Education in 1933-34: general observations.- In Table LXII, which appears in the Appendix, are presented the course offerings in Education for the regular session, 1933-34, in all the colleges in Tennessee which are accredited by the State Department of Education. The figures in the column entitled "Student Quarter Hours" were obtained by multiplying the number of students enrolled in each given course by the number of quarter hours of credit received for the course. Since in all state colleges and most private colleges in Tennessee classes regularly meet three times a week, receiving three quarter hours credit per quarter and nine per year, it has been deemed advisable to put all figures on a comparable basis by arbitrarily defining a

¹Op. cit. (As read in galley proof.)

"student year" as nine quarter hours.

Many interesting facts concerning teacher education in Tennessee are revealed by the data in Table LXII. It appears that relatively little graduate work in Education is being done during the regular session in Tennessee colleges. Outside of George Peabody College, where there was a graduate course enrollment of 527, the figure is almost negligible. Vanderbilt University reports an enrollment of twelve, the University of Tennessee, thirty-three. These three are the only institutions for white students offering graduate work in Education. Fisk University, which is the only institution in the state offering graduate work for negroes, reports a total enrollment of ten in graduate courses.

Directed teaching in some form was offered in twenty-three of the thirty-seven colleges which attempt teacher education. Student teaching in both elementary and secondary schools was offered in eight colleges; in elementary schools, in seventeen colleges; in secondary schools, in fourteen colleges. Directed teaching is reported in seven of the twelve junior colleges; in elementary schools in six, and in secondary schools in one. If Tennessee adopts the higher standards of teacher preparation which were proposed earlier, student teaching should be transferred from the curriculum of junior colleges to a more advanced level.

Table LXII shows that there were less than half as many enrollments for student teaching in the elementary school as in the secondary school. Yet there were 7,238 enrollments in courses in elementary methods as compared to only 914 in secondary methods. Seventy-seven of the 306 enrollments in student teaching in elementary schools were in junior colleges. It will be recalled (Tables XLV and XLVI) that over a thousand elementary teachers without previous experience taught in 1933-34, and that the number of new and inexperienced high school teachers was about one-tenth as many, or some number over a hundred. If student teaching is considered a necessary part of the training of a teacher, then hardly a fourth as many students were receiving adequate training for elementary teaching in 1933-34 as were needed to supply the demand for new teachers in that year, although literally thousands of students took courses in elementary methods. But the 713 students who took student teaching in high schools (Table LXII) were several times the number of new high school teachers employed in 1933-34.

There seems to be no unanimity of opinion in Tennessee colleges concerning the place of the History of Education in teacher preparation. Of the thirty-seven colleges studied, eighteen do not offer such a course at all, and in many of the others enrollments are not large. Out of a total of 19,896

enrollments in all courses in Education, only 781 were in the History of Education.

The course in Introduction to Education, which was so widely acclaimed a few years ago, appears not to have wide support in Tennessee colleges. The course is not offered at all in twenty-three of the thirty-seven colleges which give teacher training.

Obviously there is no wide acceptance in Tennessee of the idea that undergraduate courses in Education should be confined exclusively to the preparation of classroom teachers. Courses in school administration are given even in junior colleges.

Separate courses in rural school methods are reported in only nine institutions. The evidence is that less stress is being placed upon the alleged unique character of the preparation of a teacher for rural schools. There seems to be a growing conviction that "The variability in the educational needs among communities has been greatly exaggerated."¹ People are coming to believe that the special problems of the rural community are primarily economic and sociological rather than pedagogical. After all, the fundamentals of good teaching are the same everywhere, though of course the skillful teacher takes into consideration local conditions in utilizing illustrative material.

Course offerings in Education in 1933-34: variation in the specific course offerings.- Study of Table LXII reveals two indications of the wide variations in the programs of teacher education in the different colleges. One of these is the variation in the specific course offerings. That there is no unanimity of opinion as to the place of pure psychology in the education of a teacher is shown by the fact that seven of the colleges do not include the Introductory Course in General Psychology in their courses of study, while other schools report heavy enrollments in this course. Likewise seven colleges omit the basic course in Educational Psychology. Other indications of wide variations in practice in course offerings are shown in the following statistics concerning special courses in psychology applied to Education: Child Psychology is offered in twenty-two colleges; Adolescent Psychology, in ten; Psychology of Elementary Education, in five; Psychology of Secondary Education, in four; Psychology of Abnormal and Exceptional Children, in three; Psychology of Learning, in one; and Psychology of Speech and Language, in one.

All but three of the thirty-seven colleges gave courses in methods and management in elementary schools. Thirty-two gave a general course; twenty-four gave special methods courses. These

¹Twenty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, p. 27. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1927.

special methods courses were distributed as follows: Arithmetic, in eleven colleges; Rural School Methods, in nine; Reading, in nine; Primary Methods, in six; School and Community Activities, in four; Public School Music, in four; Elementary English, in three; Children's Literature, in two; Art, in two; Science, in two; History, in one; Children's Activities, in one; Health, in one; Piano Playing in Fourth, Fifth and Sixth Grades, in one; Penmanship, in one; Geography, in one; Woodwork, in one; Extra-curricular Activities, in one.

Twenty-three of the thirty-seven colleges have courses in methods and management in the secondary school. Eighteen schools have a general course; eight have special courses. The special courses are distributed as follows: English, in five colleges; History, in four; General Science, in four; Extra-curricular Activities, in two; Home Economics, in two; Mathematics, in two; Modern Languages, in one; Latin, in one; Social Science, in one; Chemistry, in one.

A course in Tests and Measurements was taught in twenty of the thirty-seven colleges. Other course offerings were as follows: Principles of Secondary Education, in eighteen colleges; School Administration, in fourteen; Educational Sociology, in nine; the Curriculum, in eight. The following subjects were taught in at least one college: Statistics, Philosophy of Education, Principles of Education, School Hygiene, Supervision of Instruction, Current Educational Theories and Practices, Adult Education, Directed Reading Course, Character Education, Mental Hygiene, Parental Education, Hygiene, Comparative Education, and Guidance.

Course offerings in Education in 1933-34: patterns of teacher preparation in different institutions.- Another indication of the wide variation in the programs of teacher education in the different schools is revealed by a study of the patterns of teacher preparation in different institutions. In considering this matter attention is directed to the curricula in certain colleges. Percentages are calculated on the basis of student years as defined in the foregoing.

The first comparison is between Carson-Newman College and Maryville College, two liberal arts senior colleges located in rural East Tennessee. The percentages of the total amount of student time devoted to Education that are given to various professional subjects are shown in Table LIII. Wide differences in the teacher education programs in the two institutions are at once apparent. Yet it would seem that the needs of the students in the two colleges for teacher education would be almost identical.

TABLE LIII

PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL AMOUNT OF STUDENT TIME DEVOTED TO
EDUCATION THAT IS GIVEN TO VARIOUS PROFESSIONAL
SUBJECTS IN CARSON-NEWMAN COLLEGE
AND MARYVILLE COLLEGE

Course	Carson-Newman College	Maryville College
Introductory course in general psychology	3.8	17.3
Psychology applied to Education	8.0	12.4
Introduction to Education	24.1	0.0
General elementary methods	27.4	7.5
Special elementary methods	2.4	0.0
General secondary methods	6.8	14.4
Tests and measurements	2.6	0.9
Statistics	0.0	3.0
Directed teaching	5.8	6.6
History of Education	3.3	15.1
Principles of Secondary Education	5.3	16.4
Philosophy of Education	0.0	5.4
Educational Sociology	4.2	0.0
Administration	6.0	0.9
Total	99.7	99.9

Comparison is now made between two junior colleges, also located in rural East Tennessee, Hiwassee College and Tennessee Wesleyan College. Here again wide differences are noted, although these two schools are situated in adjoining counties, and would seemingly have practically the same needs for teacher education. The data are shown in Table LIV.

TABLE LIV

PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL AMOUNT OF STUDENT TIME DEVOTED TO
EDUCATION THAT IS GIVEN TO VARIOUS PROFESSIONAL
SUBJECTS IN HIWASSEE COLLEGE AND
TENNESSEE WESLEYAN COLLEGE

Course	Hiwassee College	Tennessee Wesleyan College
Introductory course in general psychology	5.2	6.1
Psychology applied to Education	10.4	11.8
Introduction to Education	5.0	16.2
General elementary methods	22.5	33.8
Special elementary methods	20.0	8.8
General secondary methods	0.0	0.8
Tests and measurements	5.8	8.2

TABLE LIV (CONTINUED)

Course	Hiwassee College	Tennessee Wesleyan College
Directed teaching	31.5	5.6
Educational Sociology	0.0	3.6
Administration	0.0	1.3
School Hygiene	0.0	3.6
Total	100.4	99.8

Table LV presents a comparison of the teacher education programs in the three state teachers colleges. Here again marked differences appear.

TABLE LV

PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL AMOUNT OF STUDENT TIME DEVOTED TO
EDUCATION THAT IS GIVEN TO VARIOUS PROFESSIONAL
SUBJECTS IN THE THREE STATE TEACHERS COLLEGES

Course	Johnson City	Murfrees- boro	Memphis
Introductory course in general psychology	10.8	9.2	13.9
Psychology applied to Education	13.9	11.4	19.7
General elementary methods	12.3	16.6	23.1
Special elementary methods	25.7	36.8	17.3
Special secondary methods	4.9	0.0	0.5
Observation	0.0	6.8	0.0
Directed teaching	9.2	4.8	6.3
Tests and measurements	8.4	2.2	3.6
History of Education	1.0	1.8	1.8
Principles of secondary Educa- tion	4.2	4.6	6.7
Administration	3.4	1.1	3.4
Curriculum	5.2	1.6	1.5
Supervision	0.6	0.0	0.0
Educational Sociology	0.0	0.8	0.0
Character Education	0.0	1.4	0.0
Philosophy of Education	0.0	0.0	1.9
Total	99.6	99.1	99.7

Perhaps no one would favor a strict uniformity in the teacher education programs of the various colleges of the state. Yet it seems hardly possible to regard the existing system as being satisfactory. It almost appears as though the whims of college administrators and the interests of professors, and not the needs of prospective teachers, have been the determining factors in planning the teacher education programs.

Surely it would be in the interest of sound public policy for some agency such as the State Department of Education to

prepare suggestive core curricula for the various types of teaching positions. Perhaps committees of college administrators and professors of education could render valuable assistance in formulating such core curricula. In fact such committees should in any case formulate suggestive curricula.

Course offerings in Education in 1933-34: range in the total amount of time given to Education.- Not only is there wide variation in the programs of teacher education in the different colleges, but there is a great range in the total amount of time given to Education in the several institutions. In Table LVI is presented the ratio in each school of student years in Education to total enrollment. This is obtained by dividing the total number of student years of education in each institution by its total enrollment. Table LVII records in summarized form the same figures for the various classifications of colleges.

TABLE LVI

RATIO OF STUDENT YEARS IN EDUCATION TO STUDENT
ENROLLMENT IN TENNESSEE COLLEGES

Name of College	Enrollment 1933-1934	Student Years in Education	Ratio of Student Years to Enrollment
Private Four Year Colleges for Whites			
King College	142	105 2/3	.743
Milligan College	222	101	.455
Tusculum College	241	107 1/2	.446
Carson-Newman College	359	227 2/3	.634
Lincoln Memorial University	350	182 2/3	.523
Maryville College	772	278	.361
University of Chattanooga	422	108 2/3	.258
University of the South	223	0	.000
Tennessee College	89	60 8/9	.686
Cumberland University	581	81 1/2	.142
Vanderbilt University	1039	88	.0849
George Peabody College for Teachers	503	568 4/9	1.130
Scarritt College	94	0	.000
Union University	597	229	.384
Lambuth College	249	162 1/9	.650
Bethel College	231	129	.559
Southwestern University	401	75	.187
Private Junior Colleges for Whites			
Hiwassee College	176	120 2/3	.688
Tennessee Wesleyan	236	172 4/9	.728
Ward-Belmont School	351	57 1/6	.162

TABLE LVI (CONTINUED)

Name of College	Enrollment 1933-34	Student Years in Education	Ratio of Student Years to Enrollment
Private Junior Colleges for Whites (continued)			
David Lipscomb College	194	142 1/9	.732
Trevecca College	70	43 2/3	.629
Nashville Agricultural and Normal Institute	201	40 4/9	.204
Martin College	85	96 1/2	1.140
Freed-Hardeman College	328	244 2/9	.748
State Junior Colleges for Whites			
Austin Peay Normal School	353	91 4/9	.259
University of Tennessee Junior College	120	67	.558
State Senior Colleges for Whites			
State Teachers College, Johnson City	1003	528 2/3	.528
State Teachers College, Murfreesboro	1187	598	.505
State Teachers College, Memphis	1062	612 2/3	.577
Tennessee Polytechnic Institute	844	372	.441
University of Tennessee	2239	479 2/3	.214
State Senior College for Negroes			
Agricultural and Industrial State Teachers College	1022	413 1/3	.412
Private Four Year Colleges for Negroes			
Knoxville College	241	146 1/3	.607
Fisk University	389	152 1/9	.391
Lane College	248	181 4/9	.733
LeMoyne College	287	147 1/3	.514
Private Junior Colleges for Negroes			
Swift Memorial Junior College	61	25	.410
Morristown Normal and Industrial College	35	36 1/3	1.040

TABLE LVII

RATIO OF STUDENT YEARS IN EDUCATION TO STUDENT ENROLLMENT
IN THE VARIOUS CLASSIFICATIONS OF
TENNESSEE COLLEGES

Classification	Enrollment 1933-34	Student Years in Education	Ratio of Student Years to Enrollment
Private four year colleges for whites	6198	2505 3/9	.405
Private junior colleges for whites	1641	917 1/9	.558
State junior colleges for whites	473	158 4/9	.335
State teachers colleges	3252	1739 1/3	.534
Tennessee Polytechnic Institute	844	372	.441
University of Tennessee	2239	479 2/3	.214
State senior colleges for whites	6335	2538 2/3	.408
State senior college for negroes	1022	413 1/3	.412
Private four year colleges for negroes	1165	627 2/9	.538
Private junior colleges for negroes	96	61 1/3	.638

As might have been expected, the highest ratio among private senior colleges for white students was attained by George Peabody College for Teachers, and the lowest ratio by Vanderbilt University. Peabody has as its exclusive function the training of teachers; while Vanderbilt has never entered this field to any extent, and as explained above, her students who desire to do so may take courses in Peabody.

In the National Survey of the Education of Teachers¹ the instructors of representative courses in eighteen subject fields were asked to indicate their judgment on the question of when to introduce education courses. The summarized opinions of 759 respondents yielded the following tabulation:

First term, freshman year,	9.3 per cent
Second term, freshman year,	6.7
Beginning with sophomore year,	28.6
Beginning with junior year,	47.3
Beginning with senior year,	5.3
End of senior year,	2.8

¹Op. cit. (As read in galley proof.)

There is clearly evidenced here a trend to shift much of the work in Education to the senior college level.

This is in harmony with a conviction which was often expressed to the investigator by school executives in Tennessee. It is believed by these friends of public education that no courses in education should be offered in the freshman year; and that not over one year-course, affording nine to twelve quarter hours credit, should be offered in the sophomore year, this to consist of perhaps three hours of general psychology, three hours of applied psychology, and three to six hours in methods. It is not believed that student teaching should be offered on the junior college level. These principles are in harmony with proposals of the National Survey of the Education of Teachers which recommends that in no case should a student give more than one-eighth of his time to Education courses on the junior college level, that preferably all his time in junior college should be given to the quest for general education, that while it is desirable for the prospective teacher to have opportunity to observe demonstration teaching while he is in junior college, his practice teaching experience should come at a higher level.¹

If these progressive trends are in harmony with sound public policy, then the situation in private junior colleges in Tennessee is truly alarming. The highest ratio in any school in the state is found in a private junior college for white students. Amongst colleges for whites, the highest classification ratio is attained by private junior colleges. Likewise in schools for negro students the highest classification ratio is attained by private junior colleges. It is interesting to contrast the ratio of .259 for Austin Peay Normal School, a state institution legally designed exclusively for the training of rural elementary teachers, and the ratio of 1.14 for Martin College, a private junior college for girls. An interesting contrast also appears between the ratio of .412 in the Agricultural and Industrial State Teachers College, a state institution designed especially for the training of negro teachers, and the ratio of 1.04 in Morristown Normal and Industrial College, a private junior college for negroes.

The conclusion is inevitable that, with two exceptions, Ward-Belmont School and Nashville Agricultural and Normal Institute, the private junior colleges in Tennessee are largely deserting their legitimate field of general education, and are catering to the demands of many misguided young people whose one desire is to attend college long enough to qualify for a low grade of teacher's

¹Op. cit. (As read in galley proof.)

certificate. Unfortunately the same indictment must be brought against the junior college divisions of some of the private senior colleges.

Table LXII shows that a total of 7,270 student years were taken in Education in Tennessee colleges in 1933-34. Of this total amount, 1,137 student years were taken in junior colleges. This leaves 6,133 student years which were taken in senior colleges. It was not possible to secure definite statistics as to how much of the work in Education in senior colleges was taken on the junior college level, but it was a very large amount, according to the reports given by administrative officers of these schools.

The evidence is incontrovertible that, in the light of developing standards, entirely too many students are taking undergraduate courses in Education in Tennessee, especially on the junior college level. It has just been pointed out that a total of 7,270 student years were taken in Education in Tennessee colleges in 1933-34. It was shown in Chapter VIII that in the year 1933 approximately 4,303 persons secured certificates to teach who had not held certificates before. Statistics presented in Chapter III show that the trend is to employ fewer inexperienced teachers each succeeding year. Data given in Chapter VIII concerning the number of teachers without previous experience employed in 1933-34 indicate that the total number was probably not more than fifteen hundred.

It appears that literally thousands are studying Education in Tennessee when only hundreds can ever hope to enter the profession of teaching. There were 19,896 enrollments in education courses in Tennessee colleges in 1933-34. Too many students are taking professional courses when they should be taking academic courses. Renewed emphasis should be given to the fact that training in the subject-matter of instruction is just as much a part of the professional education of a teacher as is training in methods of instruction.

In order to bring about a reasonable amount of order out of the present chaotic situation in teacher education, an intelligently planned state-wide program is absolutely essential. Problems have been pointed out in this chapter which cannot be ignored if justice is to be done to the children to be taught and to the young people who aspire to be teachers. Minimum standards need to be established which institutions will be required to meet before they are permitted to attempt to prepare teachers; these standards should include the items of equipment, faculty, and facilities for student teaching. A certain amount of uniformity and balance in the teacher training curricula offered in the various institutions is desirable. Too many students are studying

education on the junior college level, and there is thus an over-production of poorly prepared teachers. A teacher education program should be planned which will insure the state an adequate supply of well trained teachers, and which will, in so far as is possible, protect young people from the calamity of preparing for a profession in which society is not able to provide them employment.

Tennessee is fortunate in having one of the most highly centralized public school systems in the Union, with the state board of education controlling all public institutions of higher learning save the state university, and with the state department of education exercising an enormous influence over public education in the entire state. It would seem that the planning which is needed in teacher education is possible under the direction of the administrative agencies now functioning in the state. Perhaps administrative leadership should be assumed by the state department of education. But the state legislature, the state board of education and the board of trustees of the University of Tennessee must accept responsibility for formulating desirable policies. A committee representing both the public and the private colleges should act in an advisory capacity.

The National Survey of the Education of Teachers has this to say concerning the question of state-wide planning in teacher education:

Under a state plan of careful supervision of teacher education, there should be inaugurated more rigid standards for state accreditation of private institutions for the preparation of teachers. These standards should cover not merely the amount and kind of education courses, but also the student teaching facilities, amount and type of student teaching, and the qualifications of instructors. Any legislation enacted, however, to provide better supervision of the state program of teacher education must safeguard institutions from petty interference with the curriculum, with personnel, and with forward looking experimentation.¹

In-Service Training

The findings presented in the first section of this chapter indicate that the present program of preparation of teachers in educational institutions presents problems which call for state-wide planning in teacher education. The present section, which is based upon information secured during the school year 1933-34, is a study of the existing situation in regard to the in-service training of teachers in Tennessee. The agencies for the training of teachers in service which are here considered are:

¹Op. cit. (As read in galley proof.)

institutes, teachers libraries, teachers associations, vacation schools, and extension teaching.

It will be recalled that two generalizations are indicated by the evidence presented in Chapter V, which is a study of the historical development of agencies for the training of teachers in service. In the early days of organized efforts to educate teachers in Tennessee, institutions for in-service training played the dominant role, and were in fact depended upon almost solely to perform this important function. In more recent times the tendency has been for in-service agencies to take a much less important part in the teacher education program of the state. The investigation reported in this section is an attempt to find out the function of in-service agencies in the teacher education program at the present time.

Institutes.- It will be recalled that for a period of about forty years, from 1875 to 1915, institutes were an important agency for teacher education in Tennessee (Chapter V). But for almost twenty years institutes have played an unimportant role in the state. Today the only form of institute held is a two or three day meeting of the teachers of a county, usually called in the late summer or just before the opening of the school session. Institutes are not conducted in all counties, nor are they necessarily held year after year in any one county. This is a matter left largely with the county superintendent to decide.

Where institutes are still held, they are usually anything the county superintendent makes of them. Not infrequently professors from nearby colleges are invited to lecture or to lead discussions. But in some of the programs, vestigial remains of the old "cramming" institute are encountered. The attempt is made to cover an entire elementary subject in a few brief lectures. Then too, prominent citizens are frequently given free rein to make "inspirational" addresses.

It is probably unfortunate that institutes have fallen to such a low estate in Tennessee. There seems to be little reason to doubt that teachers in service can receive needed inspiration and information in a well conducted institute held for a few days during vacation or occasionally on Saturdays during the school year. One enterprising superintendent has the following to say about this phase of his work:

We have had an annual teachers institute, which has been carried on by means of round-table discussions of the subjects taught and methods of teaching them; this has stimulated interest and encouraged efforts at progress.¹

¹Personal interview with G. Tillman Stewart, Superintendent Henderson County.

Reeder makes this statement concerning the value of properly conducted institutes:

Although. . . institutes do not always realize their potentialities, by and large they have undoubtedly been helpful in professionalizing teaching. Teacher participation in discussions of school problems cannot fail to give more zest and vitality to teaching. It is generally acknowledged that the monthly institute which the State of Indiana has provided for its teachers during recent decades has been a very potent influence towards giving the Hoosier schoolmaster his reputation for good quality and ubiquity.¹

It would probably prove very helpful if the State Department of Education in Tennessee would include in its program of activities for the benefit of public education a movement to revive interest in county institutes and to make of institutes the valuable means of in-service training which such meetings can become.

Teachers libraries.- As explained in Chapter V, two organized efforts were made in Tennessee, continuing for a period of twenty-five or thirty years, to stimulate the reading of professional books by teachers in service. The State Reading Circle was a plan designed to induce teachers in service to read at least two professional books a year. It ceased to function about 1915. The other organized effort was a plan to stimulate the establishment of teachers libraries in counties and individual schools. This movement flourished for a number of years, but after about 1915 it was no longer sponsored by the state superintendent.

No statistics concerning teachers libraries in the state are available at the present time. But it is certain that they, like institutes, are no longer stressed as agencies for teacher education in Tennessee. There are perhaps several reasons for the moribund condition of this movement in the state. For one thing, many teachers and administrators now have private professional libraries from which they no doubt lend books to colleagues.

One superintendent reports a plan which he has put into operation in his county. Each teacher is assessed a nominal sum, say a dollar a year, for the library fund. The money collected is used in purchasing professional books, books of general interest, and magazine subscriptions. The library is located in the superintendent's office, and his secretary acts as librarian. The books circulate among the teachers, while the magazines are read in the library. This superintendent is enthusiastic over the success of the plan. He believes a similar plan could be operated successfully in any county in the state. It might be helpful if the state department would again assume an aggressive role in encouraging private study among teachers in service.

¹Op. cit., p. 103.

Teachers associations.- The historical development of teachers associations in Tennessee has been traced in Chapter V. The purpose here is to present a picture of the present situation in regard to these agencies for benefitting teachers in service.

County associations, like institutes, are largely in the hands of the county superintendent. In some of the counties the custom of holding regular meetings of the teachers during the school session has not been established, though of course an occasional meeting might be held. In most of the counties monthly meetings are held, usually on Saturdays, at which programs of more or less value are given, depending again upon the superintendent or perchance a program committee. In a few of the more progressive counties the teachers have organized aggressive county associations which not only hold monthly meetings, but also seek to influence policies concerning school administration. The most progressive and successful of these county associations which has come to the investigator's attention is the Hamilton county association, which includes the city of Chattanooga.

Successful meetings of two regional teachers associations were held in 1933-34: the East Tennessee Educational Association, and the West Tennessee Teachers Association. At least two conferences were held during the year in an effort to revive the Middle Tennessee Educational Association, which has not held meetings since 1918. Whether this movement proves successful has not yet been determined; apparently the final outcome depends upon future action to be taken by the State Teachers Association.

The feeling has been growing for some time among school people that the teachers organizations should be drastically revised and reorganized. Finally, in April, 1933, the State Teachers Association chose as its president for the ensuing year the leader of the reorganization movement, Professor B. O. Duggan, of the College of Education of the University of Tennessee. Professor Duggan immediately began to make plans to effect the reorganization which he had favored for some time and to confer with educational leaders throughout the state concerning it. In collaboration with these interested leaders, he gradually worked out a program which has now been put into effect in all its essential features. The following points are included in the program:¹

1. All teachers organizations in the state, including city, county, regional, and departmental organizations and organizations of college faculties, are to become affiliates of the State Teachers Association.

¹This list of points in the reorganization program was furnished the investigator by Professor Duggan.

2. All affiliated organizations shall carry out any program which they deem desirable in their own regions or departments. They shall, however, make their recommendations concerning educational questions of state-wide scope to the State Teachers Association, which shall pool all recommendations and formulate policies to be advocated and supported in the state at large.

3. The Middle Tennessee Educational Association shall be revived and built up into an organization comparable to the regional associations in East and West Tennessee.

4. The yearly program meetings of the State Teachers Association shall be discontinued.

5. The members of the association shall elect, from specified geographical areas, representatives to the Legislative Assembly of the State Teachers Association.

6. The Legislative Assembly shall hold an annual meeting at which educational policies will be formulated and recommended for approval to the teachers and citizens at large.

7. The Legislative Assembly shall elect a President, who shall serve for one year and be eligible for re-election.

8. The Legislative Assembly shall elect an Executive Secretary-Treasurer, who shall devote his full time to the office and shall be on salary. He shall serve for three years and be eligible for re-election.

9. The presidents of the three regional associations and of the Public School Officers Association shall be ex-officio vice-presidents of the State Teachers Association.

10. The association shall publish an official journal edited by the Executive Secretary-Treasurer. Each person who pays a yearly fee for membership in the association shall receive a subscription to the journal.

11. The association shall be divorced entirely from domination by the state department of education and shall be controlled entirely by the teachers.

The plan for such a sweeping reorganization naturally met with a certain amount of opposition in respect to detailed proposals, though practically every leader in education in the state agreed with the general objectives of the program. With the enthusiastic cooperation of the vast majority of the teachers, the essential features of the plan have been inaugurated. Two points as yet remain undecided: the discontinuance of the annual program meetings of the State Teachers Association; and the revival of the Middle Tennessee Educational Association.

At the meeting of the State Association in April, 1934, there was serious opposition to the proposal to discontinue the annual program meetings of the association. The matter was

compromised eventually by deciding to hold a program meeting in April, 1935, and to reach a final settlement at that time of the question whether any more program meetings shall be held. As stated above, efforts have been made this year to revive the Middle Tennessee Teachers Association, but no great amount of interest has been manifested. Apparently the final answer to the second question will depend on what disposition is made of the first.

At the meeting in April, 1934, Professor Duggan was elected to serve a second year to enable him to carry to completion his work of reorganization.

The new plan already is being put into operation.

Mr. W.A. Bass has resigned as State High School Supervisor in order to accept the position of Executive Secretary of the State Teachers Association and is now devoting his entire time to the work. The newly formed Legislative Assembly has held its first meeting and has formulated a vigorous program of changes to be made in the Tennessee public school system.

Certainly one of the most important activities undertaken by the reorganized State Teachers Association is the publication of an official journal. Volume 1, Number 1, of "The Tennessee Teacher" made its appearance in February, 1934. This first issue set a high standard of excellence and seems to promise a magazine which will compare favorably with similar official publications in other states. It is planned to issue "The Tennessee Teacher" monthly during the school year.

Apparently the teachers of Tennessee now have a organization through which they can conceive and put into effect a state-wide program for the development of public education. It cannot be too strongly emphasized, however, that a great deal of tact as well as leadership will be needed by administrative officers, if the association is to attain the objectives set for it by its friends. It must be made very clear to the general public that the primary objective of the state association and affiliated regional and county associations is to work for the best interests of the schools, rather than for the best interests of the teachers. After all, teachers are paid out of the tax dollar. In the long run, educating the people to appreciate and to demand good schools, rather than lobbying for temporary advantages in the legislature, will be the means through which the teachers association will attain its worthy objectives.

Vacation schools.- The important part which vacation schools have played in teacher education in Tennessee has been described in Chapter V. Attention has been called to the fact two kinds of vacation schools have developed in the state: summer schools and spring terms. The purpose here is to study the

existing situation in regard to vacation schools in the state.

There is at present a wide variety of practices in Tennessee colleges and universities in regard to summer schools.

There are thirty-nine colleges in the state which are on the approved list of the State Department of Education. Of these, eighteen have no summer schools, fifteen operate twelve-weeks summer schools, and six have summer schools of six weeks.

The eight state-supported colleges all operate summer schools. Three¹ have a six-weeks term only; five² have twelve weeks.

Of eight private junior colleges for whites, four have no summer school, two have six weeks of summer school, and two have twelve-weeks sessions. Of seventeen private senior colleges for whites, nine have no summer schools, six have summer schools for twelve weeks, and two operate summer schools for six weeks only. Five of the six private schools for negroes hold no summer schools; the other operates a summer school with a twelve-weeks term.

Fourteen of the thirty-nine colleges conduct a spring term of six weeks during the second half of the spring quarter. Of these, eight are state schools, two are private junior colleges for whites, three are private senior colleges for whites, and one is a private senior college for negroes.

Comparative statistics from the records of the University of Tennessee are presented as an indication of the trends in vacation school enrollments in recent years. It was pointed out in Chapter V that the Summer School of the South closed in 1918, and that, after a two-year interval in which no school was held, the present summer school was opened in 1921. The spring term was first held at the University of Tennessee in 1922. After that year it was discontinued, but was revived in 1926 and has been held regularly since that time. The yearly enrollments in the summer quarter since it opened in 1921, and in the spring term since it opened in 1922, are shown in parallel columns in Table LVIII.

It will be noted that the peak in attendance in both spring term and summer quarter was reached in 1931. During the next two years, enrollment in both dropped practically fifty per cent. But a rise appears in 1934 in both the summer quarter and

¹State Teachers College, Memphis, Austin Peay Normal School, Tennessee Polytechnic Institute.

²University of Tennessee, University of Tennessee Junior College, State Teachers College, Murfreesboro, State Teachers College, Johnson City, Agricultural and Industrial State Teachers College.

TABLE LVIII

ENROLLMENTS IN SUMMER QUARTERS AND SPRING TERMS
AT THE UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE, 1921-1934

Year	Summer Quarter	Spring Term For Teachers
1921	891	-
1922	911	61
1923	1019	-
1924	1080	-
1925	1126	-
1926	1159	208
1927	1266	322
1928	1423	373
1929	1578	368
1930	1681	395
1931	1856	402
1932	1499	290
1933	1031	192
1934	1198	224

the spring term enrollments.

One cannot do more than guess how far this change in the last few years is due to depression conditions. But there appears to be some reason to believe that a fundamental change in teacher education is indicated, and that vacation training of teachers in service who are still undergraduates is definitely on the decline in Tennessee.

It is known that paralleling this decline in general enrollment in vacation schools there has been an increase in the enrollment of graduate students in Peabody and the University of Tennessee, which are the only colleges for whites offering graduate training in Education in the state.

Some other figures were obtained which seem to indicate a trend from in-service training to pre-service training in the education of teachers. At the State Teachers College, Murfreesboro, the question was asked as to how many graduates had completed the requirements for their degree without stopping. The data secured are as follows: in 1928, 37 out of 103 graduates had gone straight through to their college degrees without stopping to teach - 14 per cent; in 1932, 37 out of 103 - 36 per cent; in 1933, 50 out of 115 - 44 per cent; in 1934, 49 out of 106 - 46 per cent.

Apparently there is indicated here a definite increase in the number of students who are securing their college degree before they enter the teaching profession. This is a most encouraging

sign to those who believe that teaching should be regarded as one of the learned professions, and that careful preparation before service should supersede training in service on the undergraduate level.

Extension teaching.- Very little in-service training of teachers is being done through extension teaching in Tennessee. Three schools in the state offer work by correspondence: the University of Tennessee, George Peabody College for Teachers, and Union University. At none of these is the work done extensive. At the University of Tennessee, for example, the total enrollment for the year 1933-34 was 570, of which only 83 were enrollments in Education courses. A recent ruling of the State Department of Education denies credit towards a certificate for courses in Education taken by correspondence. This means that in the future practically no courses in Education will be taken by correspondence - unless the drastic ruling is eventually somewhat modified.

The extension teaching in the state other than by correspondence is negligible. The Extension Division of the University of Tennessee conducts a few extension classes each year, some at Knoxville and a few elsewhere. During the year 1933-34, seven courses in Education were taught by extension, with a total enrollment of eighty-five students.

Some colleges have made a practice of organizing occasional Saturday extension classes for teachers in service. These courses are usually taught at the college. Naturally only a very few undergraduate courses can be offered in this manner, because a large percentage of the teachers have taken most of the undergraduate courses in Education offered in the college. Thus the demand for these courses is soon exhausted. This practice seems to be definitely on the wane in Tennessee.

The Director of Extension at the University of Tennessee expressed his belief that with the coming of higher standards for the pre-service training of teachers few if any courses in Education will be offered for credit by extension. He also stated that the most promising field for extension teaching in the future will be courses or series of lectures in general cultural subjects which are offered without credit as a part of an enlarged program of adult education. Such courses would of course be made available to teachers in service.

Concluding statement concerning in-service training.- The evidence is that there are problems which concern the in-service training of teachers in Tennessee. It is perhaps regrettable that institutes now play such a negligible part in the training of teachers in service. Also the passing of the movement to stimulate teachers to read professional literature while in

service seems unfortunate. Perhaps the State Department of Education should assume leadership in a movement to revive interest in institutes and in professional reading. On the whole teachers associations appear to be developing and increasing in importance in the state. But many superintendents have not realized the benefits to be derived from a progressive county teachers association. The regional association in Middle Tennessee has been inactive for many years, and attempts to revive the organization have been so far unsuccessful. The reorganized state association provides an agency which can be of great service to the teachers and the schools of Tennessee, if it is properly conducted. Vacation schools are not the important agencies for the training of teachers in service which they were a decade or so ago. As more and more teachers are securing degrees before entering service, fewer and fewer teachers are attending vacation schools, except those who are pursuing graduate study. Perhaps a valuable service could be provided by institutions which would offer in vacation schools non-credit courses for teachers who are desirous of improving themselves either in general education or in professional fitness. This service would be similar to that now provided by certain institutions for members of the medical profession. Extension teaching plays an almost negligible part in the in-service training of teachers in Tennessee. It is possible that an important field for extension teaching in the future will be non-credit general cultural courses which will be a part of a state program of adult education, and which will cater to the public in general as well as to teachers.

Graves makes the following comments concerning the importance of in-service training in the education of teachers:

Nor should it be supposed that the education of a teacher is ever complete when she has been graduated from the normal school or teachers college. . . . The teacher should continue to advance in knowledge and technique through training in service. . . .

Every possible means should be adopted to build up a professional attitude and every device used to refute superficial objections to training in service.¹

He commends as agencies which may be of definite value in the training of teachers in service teachers' meetings, reading circles, university extension, correspondence study, summer sessions, sabbatical leaves and teachers institutes.

¹Op. cit., pp. 175-178.

CHAPTER X

THE RELATION OF TEACHER EDUCATION TO THE GENERAL PROGRAM OF HIGHER EDUCATION

The final step in this investigation is a study of the relation of teacher education to the general program of higher education in Tennessee. Unless this relationship is fully recognized and clearly understood, it is impossible to attain an adequate conception of the program of teacher preparation and the problems in teacher education which confront the State.

Two important considerations indicate that the relationship between teacher education and higher education in general is real and vital. In the first place, the nature of the course of study pursued by a student who is preparing to teach makes it impossible for him to withdraw into an institution which offers only professional courses, as does the student preparing to enter law or medicine. It is for this reason that the analogy which is sometimes drawn between the education of a teacher and the education of a lawyer or doctor is inaccurate and even misleading. All or practically all the courses pursued by a student in law school are definitely professional. The evidence is that about one-sixth of the courses in a four-year curriculum of teacher education are devoted to professional subjects; or one-third of the courses in the junior and senior years, if the professional subjects are concentrated in the senior college. Davis¹ reports that directors of teacher training recommend that not over fifteen or twenty semester hours, or twelve to sixteen per cent, of a four-year course for teachers should be devoted to Education. Attention has been called to the fact that Tennessee issues the permanent professional high school certificate to the applicant who holds a degree and who has taken twenty-seven quarter hours in Education; and that the University of Tennessee allows an undergraduate to take only twenty-seven hours in Education. This is about fifteen per cent of the entire course. The facts at hand clearly indicate that no satisfactory school for the education of teachers is possible which does not include as an integral part of the institution strong academic departments with able faculties.

¹C. O. Davis, "Trends in Academic Training for High School Teachers," The Nation's Schools, September, 1934, p. 43.

It is not improbable that in some instances the organization of a separate college of education in a university, especially on the undergraduate level, has been an unfortunate development, because it tends to connote a separateness in the education of teachers which simply belies the facts. Possibly a department of education, which is responsible for the theoretical and practical aspects of the professional preparation of teachers, and which is closely integrated with the academic departments, is the preferable organization.

A second important consideration which indicates the intimate relationship between teacher education and the general program of higher education is the large place taken by liberal arts or general colleges in the preparation of teachers in Tennessee. Only one-tenth of the white elementary teachers in 1933-34 had attended a state teachers college; the other nine-tenths had attended the state university, private and church colleges, and institutions outside of Tennessee (Table XLVIII). About one-sixth of all the elementary teachers and three-tenths of the high school teachers had attended a teachers college (Table XLIX). Something over one-third of the high school principals (Table L) and one-half the superintendents held degrees from teachers colleges (Table LI). Furthermore, of the 7,270 $\frac{5}{9}$ student years taken in Education in Tennessee colleges in 1933-34, 1,830 $\frac{7}{9}$, or twenty-five per cent, were taken in state teacher training institutions; 568 $\frac{4}{9}$, or eight per cent in George Peabody College for Teachers; which leaves 4,871 $\frac{1}{3}$ students years, or sixty-seven per cent, which were taken in the state university and liberal arts or general colleges (Table LXII).

In summary, it can be stated that the intimate relation between teacher education and the general program of higher education is indicated by two important considerations. In the first place, the major part of the course of study in a teacher education curriculum consists of academic subjects; hence the preparation of teachers can be attempted only in institutions which include strong academic departments. In the second place, much more than half the teacher education in Tennessee is given in institutions which are not designed exclusively for the work of preparing teachers. Hence it is certain that the general program of higher education in the state must be studied to some extent if the program of teacher education is to be fully understood and properly evaluated.

The Need for a Planned State Program of Higher Education

There seems to be a growing conviction that there is now an imperative need for state-wide planning in the field of higher

education. It is felt that only by such a planned program can all the needs of all the people for higher education be met, which should certainly be the goal set in a democracy. People who study the matter at all are coming to the inevitable conclusion that state colleges should not be operated in competition with private colleges, but rather in cooperation with private colleges.

The general situation is described as follows by Suzzallo in the Twenty-eighth Annual Report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching:

It is a commonplace of academic criticism that colleges and universities on private foundations have too often been notoriously lacking in cooperation. Uncooperativeness too frequently characterizes publicly controlled institutions but in a slightly different form; state supported universities and colleges have sometimes become oblivious of the service to the public rendered by denominational institutions in the same region. Indeed, as recent surveys of state higher education have conclusively shown, state supported higher institutions have been and still are proudly and ambitiously uncooperative even with their own kind within their own state. This condition calls for remedy from within before remedy is imposed by necessity from without.

The situation would be far different if every institution of higher education were to regard itself as merely one instrumentality in a large group of agencies, which together serve a locality, a state, a region, or the nation in teaching, in research, and in practical advisory service. Once this view is adopted, wasteful rivalry gives place to effectual cooperation, and a new pride in quality supersedes the delight in size or numbers which now renders us completely oblivious to the mediocrity of much we do.¹

The situation in Tennessee is not different from that described by Suzzallo. No attempt has been made to develop a planned state program of higher education, though the necessity for such a program is recognized by many leaders in education in the state. There are perhaps too many colleges in certain regions, too few in others. State institutions compete for students with each other and with private colleges. Perhaps there is needless duplication of function in certain cases. Too many students are trained for certain pursuits while others are neglected entirely. Apparently neither the legislature nor private agencies have recognized the fact that the first two years in college are essentially secondary in character and should be devoted to general education, and that specialization should be delayed until the

¹Henry Suzzallo, "Our Tradition of Institutional Individualism," Twenty-Eighth Annual Report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1933, pp. 4-5.

senior college level. Consequently both state and private colleges have been assigned unique and exclusive functions which they have found it impossible to perform.

Actual Functions as Contrasted with Legal Functions of the Colleges

Attention has already been called to the fact that every one of the state colleges, save the state university, has been assigned by the legislature a unique function to perform. Only the state university is entitled to function as a general college. Indeed, it appears that the intent of the legislature has been to prevent the seven other colleges from serving the needs of those students who are interested merely in securing a general education. Every student who enters one of the three state teachers colleges is required by law to sign a statement that he will teach at least for as long a period as he spends in the college.

The law establishing the Tennessee Polytechnic Institute is most specific concerning the function of the school to provide education for those students who seek technical and industrial training. The Austin Peay Normal School is created "for the purpose of training white teachers for the rural public schools of the State, and shall never be used for any other purpose." The University of Tennessee Junior College was established as a junior college of "Agriculture, Industrial Arts and Home Economics." The state college for negroes has for its legal function the education of teachers and industrial workers.

Effort was made to secure information which would tend to indicate the actual as contrasted with the legal functions of these colleges.

At the State Teachers Colleges at Johnson City and Memphis, the following questionnaire was submitted to members of the freshman class with the approval and active assistance of the presidents of these institutions:

FRESHMAN CLASS

You are not asked to sign your name to this paper, hence we hope you will please speak your mind freely.

We know that you have signed a pledge signifying your intention to teach for a short time at least, but we also know this does not necessarily indicate your ultimate vocational objective. Hence, we ask you to answer the following questions:

1. Have you decided upon a vocation which you wish to follow as a lifetime occupation (provided matrimony or some unforeseen condition does not interfere)? Answer yes or no. _____

2. If your answer to question number one is "yes," what is the vocation which you have chosen? _____

3. If your answer to question number one is "no," please state if possible what vocation at present appeals to you most. _____

At Johnson City 124 answered "yes" to question 1, of whom 91 listed teaching and 33 listed some other vocation as their chosen life work; 48 answered "no," of whom 23 listed teaching as the work which now appeals to them most and 25 listed some other line of work or left the question unanswered.

At Memphis 191 answered "yes" to question 1, of whom 99 listed teaching and 92 listed some other vocation as their chosen life work; 95 answered "no," of whom 25 listed teaching as the work which now appeals to them most and 72 listed some other line of work or left the question unanswered.

Two generalizations are indicated by these data. Neither of these schools is in fact the exclusive teacher training institution which it is in law. A larger percentage of the students at Johnson City are preparing for teaching than at Memphis. This difference is perhaps what one should expect. Memphis is a large city, and according to the word of the president of the institution, the people of Memphis seem to be determined to make of the state college in their midst primarily a regional general college, and only secondarily a teacher training institution.

The geographical distribution of student enrollment in the colleges of Tennessee was secured in the belief that these statistics would shed light upon the present situation in regard to higher education in the state, and perhaps give some indication of a desirable public policy for the future. The enrollments by counties in each of the seven state colleges for white students during the scholastic year 1933-34 are shown in Table LIX.

It will be noted that the order in which the counties appear in this table is geographical, beginning with Johnson County in the extreme northeastern tip of the state and ending with Shelby County in the southwestern corner. The way in which the order was arrived at is shown on the map of Tennessee in Figure 6. The arrangement of the colleges in the table is also determined by geographical location, beginning with State Teachers College, Johnson City, in the northeastern section of the state, and ending with State Teachers College, Memphis, in the southwestern corner of the state. This arrangement was worked out in order to show as graphically as may be shown in a table the influence of geographical location upon college enrollment. The same plan of arrangement is followed in the other two tables which appear in the present chapter.

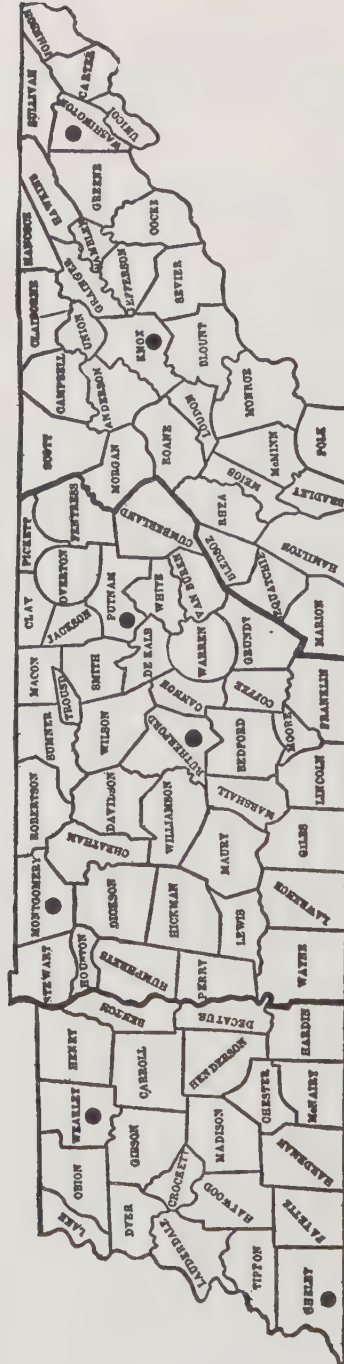


Fig. 7.- Showing locations of state colleges for white students: State Teachers College, Johnson City, Washington County; the University of Tennessee, Knoxville; Tennessee Polytechnic Institute, Putnam County; State Teachers College, Murfreesboro, Rutherford County; Austin Peay Normal School, Montgomery County; University of Tennessee Junior College, Weakley County; State Teachers College, Memphis, Shelby County.

TABLE LIX

ENROLLMENTS BY COUNTIES IN TENNESSEE STATE
COLLEGES FOR WHITE STUDENTS

County	State Teachers College, Johnson City	The University of Tennessee, Knoxville	Tennessee Polytechnic Institute, Cookeville	State Teachers College, Murfreesboro	Austin Peay Normal School, Clarksville	U.T. Junior College, Martin	State Teachers College, Memphis	Total Enrollments 1933-1934	Enrollments per Thousand Population
Column Number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Johnson	47	4						51	4.27
Sullivan	81	18		1				100	2.04
Carter	113	11						124	4.32
Unicoi	81	10						91	7.20
Washington	295	21						316	7.34
Greene	63	17	1					81	2.38
Hawkins	44	23						67	2.90
Hamblen	5	19					1	25	1.67
Cocke	36	8						44	2.09
Jefferson	10	18						28	1.68
Grainger	14	10						24	1.93
Hancock	7	3						10	1.05
Claiborne	11	12	1					24	1.01
Campbell	10	29	2					41	1.53
Scott	14	10	15					39	2.77
Morgan	2	16	36					54	4.11
Roane	4	21	14					39	1.69
Anderson	5	38	1					34	1.76
Union	4	28						32	2.82
Knox	13	859	4	2				878	6.43
Sevier	15	28						43	2.12
Blount	20	57		1				78	2.51
Loudon	6	24	4	2				36	2.10
Monroe	8	14	2					24	1.18
McMinn	7	32	3	4				46	1.69
Polk	21	9	1	1				32	2.06
Bradley	15	21	1					37	1.76
Meigs	5	7						12	2.10
Rhea	1	6	15					22	1.68
Bledsoe	1	5	18	2				27	4.20
Sequatchi	1		9	8				18	4.46
Hamilton	15	91	2	30		1		139	1.12
Marion	5	15	1	43				64	3.95
Franklin	1	6	15	49				71	3.69
Grundy	1	3	1	31				36	3.78
Warren	1	10	11	52				74	3.92
Van Buren	1	1	3					5	1.45
White	2	6	61	3				72	4.85
Cumberland	3	5	30	2				40	3.53
Fentress		5	38	11				54	4.92
Pickett		3	26					29	5.18
Clay		2	37	2				42	4.52

TABLE LIX (CONTINUED)

Column Number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Overton		9	98	2				109	6.08
Putnam		6	192	1				199	8.58
Jackson	1	2	52	1				56	4.20
Macon			5	28	3	1		37	2.74
Smith		8	11	12				31	2.14
Dekalb		4	47	15				66	4.82
Cannon			3	50				53	6.15
Coffee		7	4	51				62	3.54
Moore		2	3					5	1.34
Bedford		12		39				51	2.94
Rutherford		10	1	261				272	11.1
Wilson		10	2	14				26	1.34
Trousdale		3	2	5				10	2.29
Sumner		8	2	42	6			58	2.36
Davidson	1	63	12	65	4	3		148	0.86
Williamson		11	4	27	3			45	2.56
Cheatham		4		5	30			39	4.81
Robertson		11	1	23	3		1	39	1.75
Montgomery		7	2	6	113			128	6.18
Stewart		1	1	6	44	1		53	4.19
Houston		1		4	14	1		20	3.96
Dickson		3	4	18	40			65	3.90
Humphreys		5	5	10	36	2		58	5.12
Hickman		6	2	24	14		2	48	3.84
Maury		13		41	1			55	2.27
Marshall		9	1	27				37	2.80
Lincoln		11	6	38			1	56	2.62
Giles		12	7	30				49	2.39
Lawrence		3	2	36			1	42	1.58
Lewis			7	7	3		1	18	3.71
Perry				20			1	21	3.04
Wayne		1		15			4	20	1.70
Decatur		2				3	18	23	2.49
Hardin		7	2	1		1	23	34	2.30
McNairy		2				2	29	33	1.81
Hardeman		6	1				37	44	3.22
Chester		2						2	0.23
Henderson		5		1		4	11	21	1.32
Madison		11					6	17	0.56
Haywood		6					16	22	2.49
Crockett		7				4	21	32	2.30
Gibson		30	1			9	39	79	2.16
Carroll		11					7	18	0.84
Benton		2			20	2	4	28	2.57
Henry		13	1	4	12	2	4	36	1.68
Weakley		14		3		56	11	74	2.78
Obion		19				8	16	43	1.72
Lake		3				2	2	7	1.04
Dyer		13				6	13	32	1.22
Lauderdale		9					26	35	2.46
Tipton		14	1			3	38	56	3.46
Fayette		5		1		5	31	42	5.38
Shelby		159	2		2	4	688	855	4.77
Total Tenn.	991	2107	836	1177	348	120	1042	6621	3.09
Other States	12	132	8	10	5	0	20	187	
Grand Total	1003	2239	844	1187	353	120	1062	6808	

Data included in Table LIX supply unmistakable evidence that geographical location is the chief factor in drawing students to a given institution. As a rule, students attend a school because it is near their homes, and not because it has been dedicated by the legislature or private foundation to offer some unique type of training. The Austin Peay Normal School, which is dedicated by law exclusively to the training of rural elementary school teachers, may be used as an example. If the school is in fact what it is in law, then it is drawing only students who are preparing to be rural elementary teachers. Is this the case?

Table LIX shows that of the 348 students enrolled in the school, 113 are from Montgomery County in which the college is located. Another 131 are from Cheatham, Robertson, Stewart, Houston and Dickson Counties, which are contiguous to Montgomery. Of the remaining 104 students enrolled, 102 are from the same general section of the state. This leaves only two students who do not live in the section of the state in which the college is situated. And yet the expressed intent of the law was to establish a school for the training of rural elementary teachers for the entire state.

From another standpoint the figures are no less striking. Of the 128 students who attended state colleges from Montgomery County in 1933-34, 113 or 88 per cent of them attended Austin Peay Normal School. Out of the 244 students from Montgomery and its five adjoining counties who attended state colleges, 144 or 59 per cent attended the Austin Peay Normal School.

The significance of these figures is inescapable. It would be ridiculous to assume that all the college youths of Tennessee who intend to adopt the calling of rural elementary school teaching happen to come from the northwestern section of Middle Tennessee. Furthermore, the supposition that more than half of the college youths of this particular section are interesting themselves in this calling in spite of its insecurity of tenure and its low salary is even more fantastic. The plain fact is, that although Austin Peay Normal School was founded for the exclusive purpose of training rural elementary school teachers, and although the executive officers of the school have made an honest and sincere effort to comply with the law, the people of northwestern Middle Tennessee are using it as a regional junior college for their section.

Examination of other available data (Table IX) shows that the same situation obtains in the other five state colleges which are supposed by law to serve a specialized function. In Washington County eighty-two per cent of all the white students in college are attending the local State Teachers College, at Johnson City. In

[illegible]

the nearby counties of Johnson and Carter eighty-four per cent and seventy-four per cent respectively of the white students in college are attending the same college. The State Teachers College at Johnson City is intended to serve as the state teacher training institution for the whole of East Tennessee, yet the nine most northeasterly counties, which furnish only thirty per cent of the total college population of East Tennessee, furnish seventy-seven per cent of the enrollment in the teachers college.

The Tennessee Polytechnic Institute, located at Cookeville in Putnam County, is designated by law to perform the specific function of providing "technical education" for white pupils. Yet ninety-three per cent of the students in college from Putnam County are attending this school. Pickett County, one county removed, sends eighty-nine per cent of its college students to this institution. The per cents for other neighboring counties are: Clay, seventy-five per cent; Fentress, sixty-seven per cent; Cumberland, fifty-three per cent; White, sixty-seven per cent; Overton, eighty-one per cent; Jackson, eighty-nine per cent.

Many other similar facts concerning the local character of the enrollment in state colleges could be cited. Eighty-three per cent of the college students in Rutherford County are attending the local State Teachers College, Murfreesboro. The University of Tennessee Junior College, which according to law devotes itself exclusively to the teaching of "Agriculture, Industrial Arts and Home Economics," draws 56 out of its 120 students from the home county of Weakley. This number is forty-seven per cent of the total enrollment in the college, and likewise forty-seven per cent of the total college population of Weakley County. Fifty-eight per cent of all the students in college from Shelby County, the most densely populated county in the state, are attending the local State Teachers College, Memphis.

Unless vocational intent has become largely a geographical phenomenon - which seems unlikely - these state colleges, designed by law to give specialized training, are not in fact performing the specific functions for which they are intended. Instead they are serving primarily as regional state colleges.

The University of Tennessee alone of all the state colleges appears to be performing in fact the functions for which it was established. It is not limited to one field of activity, and it is drawing fairly heavily and fairly consistently from all sections of the state, though it will be noted that about forty per cent of the entire enrollment is from Knox County.

Obviously, then, the state of Tennessee does not have in fact the program of higher education which it has in law. The state teachers colleges are attended by many students who do not

expect to enter the profession of teaching, and yet every student is required by law to sign a pledge that he will teach for at least as long a period of time as he attends one of these institutions. The Tennessee Polytechnic Institute is not today a technical school; it is in reality a liberal arts college with chief emphasis upon science. It should be stated, also, that the school has taken its present character because of the demands of its students, and in spite of the sincere efforts of its executive officers to maintain the type of institution which the legislature prescribed. That there is at present little demand for a school devoted exclusively to agriculture, home economics and industrial arts is shown by the small enrollment in the college at Martin, and also by the fact that other courses are offered.

If the state of Tennessee actually wishes to have in fact merely the program of higher education which has been established by law, then drastic revision of the curriculums of the state colleges must be effected. The program of studies in each one of these institutions must be restricted to subjects which form an integral part of the curriculum which was prescribed for the school in the law which established it. On the other hand, if the state feels emboldened to undertake a planned program of higher education which has as its objective to make reasonably available, in either private or state institution, to all able youths the benefits of college training, then the type of change just suggested is emphatically not in order.

Number of Colleges Needed

A bill to abolish all state colleges for white students except the University of Tennessee was actually introduced in the 1933 legislature, as is indicated by the following clipping from a Nashville newspaper:

A bill to abolish the state normals at Memphis, Clarksville, Murfreesboro and Johnson City, the Tennessee Polytechnic Institute at Cookeville, and the University of Tennessee Junior College at Martin was dropped into the hopper by Senator W. P. Monroe of Union, who estimated its passage would result in a \$2,000,000 biennial saving.

The bill provides that the property and equipment of the schools be offered first to the counties in which they are located, and, if not accepted, to the municipalities. If not accepted within a year, then the Governor, Comptroller, and Treasurer would be authorized to advertise and sell the property and place the proceeds in the general education fund.¹

¹The Nashville Banner, Nashville, Tennessee, January 3, 1933, p. 1.

Fortunately for Tennessee, the legislature did not heed this counsel of despair, though it did drastically reduce the appropriations for all state colleges. But there appears to be a rather persistent idea that there are too many colleges in Tennessee. At the 1934 meeting of the Tennessee College Association the idea was advanced by several speakers, and a number of college presidents voiced assent. But significantly enough, none of these college presidents suggested his own institution as a school which should be abolished.

A person who visits all the colleges in Tennessee and studies their conditions is forced to the conviction that at least a few of them have no rightful place in a state program of higher education, as they are now situated. A school which is hopelessly lacking in necessary equipment, and which cannot raise the money to pay even decent wages to its employees, should give up the struggle for existence. But this does not establish the fact that there are too many colleges.

There is available interesting evidence concerning the relation between the number of students who attend college from a given region and the accessibility of college facilities in that region. If it is established that on the whole the more accessible a section is to college advantages the greater the percentage of its youth who seek higher education, this fact must be taken into consideration in planning a state program of higher education. Table LX shows the enrollment by counties in all Tennessee colleges for white students in 1933-34. In order to reduce the data to a comparable basis, college enrollments per thousand population were calculated. These ratios appear in the last column in the table.

The essentially local character of the enrollments in practically all the schools is at once apparent. Attention can be directed to only a few of the interesting and significant facts presented in this table. But one is inevitably driven to the conclusion that the one best way to insure that a substantial number of youth of ability in a given locality shall attend college is to establish a college in that locality. Also it appears that as a rule a school will be largely attended by students from the section in which it is situated, no matter whether it is a public or private enterprise, no matter whether it is or is not controlled by some religious denomination, and no matter what unique functions a legislature or board of trustees may declare a school shall have.

In Rutherford County, in which is situated State Teachers College, Murfreesboro, and Tennessee College, the number of students attending college per thousand population is 12.8, which is the highest ratio attained by any county in the state. In Moore

County, where no college is located, and where the nearest college is some distance away, the number of students in college per thousand population is only 1.34, which is the lowest ratio attained by any county in the state.

Other examples of the same kind could be cited in abundance. The second highest ratio of 11.4 is attained by Madison County, which is the home of Union University and Lambuth College. Other high ratios are the following: 9.70 in Unicoi County which is adjacent to Carter and Washington Counties, in which are situated Milligan College and State Teachers College, Johnson City, respectively; 8.26 in Washington County; 7.33 in Jefferson County, the home of Carson-Newman College; 6.94 in Knox County, the home of the University of Tennessee; 7.71 in Blount County in which Maryville College is located; 6.28 in McMinn County, the home of Tennessee Wesleyan College; 6.14 in White County, which is adjacent to Putnam, the home of Tennessee Polytechnic Institute; 6.75 in Overton County, which is contiguous to Putnam; 9.00 in Putnam; 6.48 in Cannon County, which joins Rutherford; 8.44 in Wilson County, the home of Cumberland University; 6.75 in Davidson County, which is the home of seven colleges for white students; 7.00 in Montgomery County, which is the home of Austin Peay Normal School; 9.86 in Chester County, in which Freed-Hardeman College is located; 8.47 in Henderson County, which joins both Chester and Madison; 7.94 in Carroll County, the home of Bethel College; 6.95 in Fayette County, which adjoins Shelby; 6.18 in Shelby County, in which are located Southwestern University and State Teachers College, Memphis.

Other examples of low ratios in counties relatively remote from college advantages are the following: 2.94 in Hancock County; 1.74 in Van Buren County; 1.93 in Lawrence County; and 2.52 in Lake County.

It might be urged that these counties which send relatively few students to college have a different kind of population from that of the others which patronize colleges liberally, a population either less capable of learning or more indifferent to its benefits. That the facts do not justify this explanation is strikingly demonstrated by certain available statistics which concern the Tennessee Polytechnic Institute and college enrollments from the area in which it is situated.

The region known as the Upper Cumberland Plateau, in which Tennessee Polytechnic Institute is located, is perhaps one of the poorest and least accessible in the state. It includes ten counties: Putnam, Overton, Pickett, Fentress, Cumberland, DeKalb, Smith, Jackson, White and Clay. In 1913-14 these ten counties sent sixty-one students to the two state institutions then available to serve them, forty-six to the state normal school at

Murfreesboro and fifteen to the University of Tennessee. In 1916, the Tennessee Polytechnic Institute was opened at Cookeville, Putnam County, near the center of this section. In 1918-19, the first year for which statistics are available, 251 students were attending Tennessee Polytechnic Institute from these ten counties. It should be noted that the latter year was a war year in which college population should normally have been smaller than it was in 1913-14. In 1933-34, these ten counties sent 648 students to three state institutions, as follows: State Teachers College, Murfreesboro, forty-nine; University of Tennessee, forty-three; and Tennessee Polytechnic Institute, 592.

The meaning of these figures cannot be misread. To establish a college means to provide college education to many youths who otherwise would be denied this advantage. To abolish a college means to withdraw the opportunity of many young people to attend college. There are a great many youth who wish to go to college but who cannot or at least feel that they cannot do so unless there is a college reasonably near at hand. It is not the kind of people who inhabit a given region which determines in the main whether its college enrollment shall be high or low. The chief determining element is the geographical factor of nearness to the collegiate institution.

If any one of these staté colleges should be abolished many of those who are now being served by it would not go elsewhere but would drop out altogether, and many of those who would be served by it in the future will never have the opportunity of a college education. The same reasoning applies to the private colleges. They too, or most of them, are bringing higher education to many who would not otherwise have the opportunity. Therefore, if one believes in the democratic ideal of equality of educational opportunity, he hesitates to take the responsibility of declaring that a given college should be abolished. For the same reason he hesitates to recommend that two colleges which serve different areas should be consolidated, because to move a college is to abolish it so far as its local constituency is concerned.

It is of course recognized that experts in higher education would probably, after exhaustive study of the situation, recommend a number of changes in the existing set-up of college education in Tennessee. There might conceivably be too many colleges in some sections, too few in others. But the local character of the enrollment in the average college cannot be overlooked in any comprehensive study of the needs of a state for facilities for higher education.

The private colleges will have to work out their own

salvation, and a few of them may be compelled to close. But it is difficult to see how abolishing a few of the colleges would help the general college situation. What these private institutions need, in most cases, is not to be consolidated, nor to be abolished but to be provided with adequate financial support. Change from a senior to a junior college might be advisable in some cases.

The Negro Colleges

At present Tennessee has seven colleges for negroes, one state college and six private institutions. The enrollments by counties in all these schools in 1933-34 is shown in Table LXI.

This table reveals a number of interesting facts concerning the service which these institutions are performing in providing higher education to negro youths. The local character of the enrollment of Tennessee students in all the private colleges is at once apparent; also, the smallness of the enrollment in the two private junior colleges in East Tennessee. Only the state college at Nashville draws students from the state at large.

Only two colleges in the state enrolled students from a larger number of counties than the agricultural and Industrial State Teachers College; these were the University of Tennessee and the Tennessee Polytechnic Institute. The state college for negroes enrolled students from fifty counties. Also the fact that only twenty-nine per cent of the students in the state college were from Davidson County in which it is situated indicates that the school is in reality a state rather than a local institution. Even the University of Tennessee, for example, received forty per cent of its students from Knox County in which it is located.

No less significant is the drawing power of the state college even in the more or less immediate vicinity of the private colleges. For example, in Tipton County, adjacent to Shelby in which LeMoyne is located, seventeen out of the twenty students attend the state college. In Carroll County, adjacent to Madison in which Lane College is situated, eleven students go to the state college and none to Lane. Fisk University in Nashville draws only three students from Middle Tennessee counties other than Davidson. The state college, also in Nashville, draws 261. Sevier County sends eleven students to the state college but none to Knoxville College in adjacent Knox County. Sullivan and Cocke counties in East Tennessee, although close to two adjoining counties both of which have colleges, send a majority of their students to the distant Agricultural and Industrial State Teachers College.

It will be noted that all the private colleges serve a very restricted area. The most striking example of this is LeMoyne College in Memphis, of whose 267 Tennessee students 262 come from

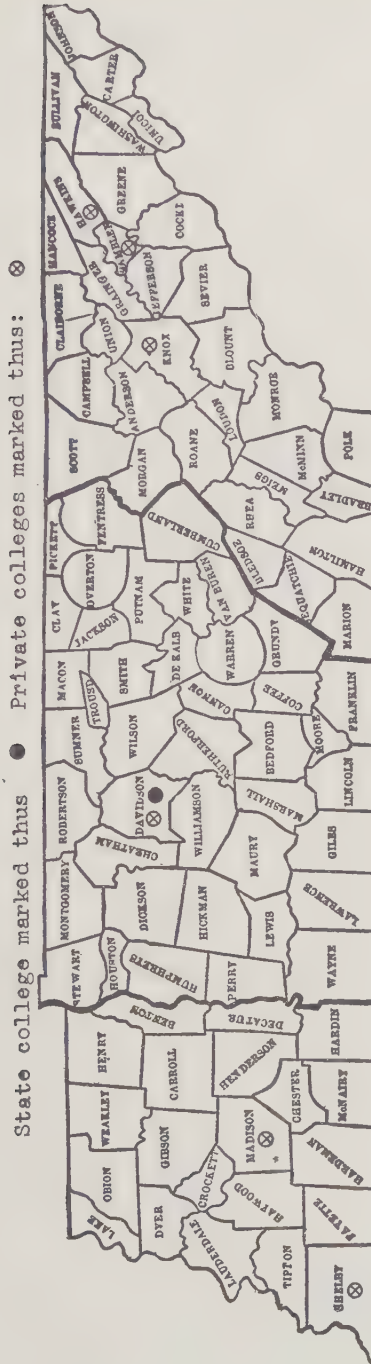


Fig. 9.-- Showing locations of colleges for negro students: Swift Memorial Junior College, Hawkins County; Morristown Normal and Industrial College, Hamblen County; Knoxville College, Knox County; Fisk University, Davidson County; Agricultural and Industrial State Teachers College, Davidson County; Lane College, Madison County; Le Moyne College, Shelby County.

[illegible]

TABLE LXI (CONTINUED)

Column Number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Pickett									4	0.00
Clay									285	0.00
Overton									136	0.00
Putnam					2			2	573	3.49
Jackson									234	0.00
Macon									313	0.00
Smith					12			12	1059	11.3
Dekalb					7			7	515	13.6
Cannon									314	0.00
Coffee									1301	00.00
Moore									304	0.00
Bedford					39			39	3711	10.5
Rutherford					20			20	7741	2.58
Wilson					15			15	4481	3.34
Trousdale									1267	0.00
Sumner					14			14	4082	3.43
Davidson				102	256			358	51797	6.91
Williamson					19			19	5274	3.60
Cheatham									817	0.00
Robertson					17			17	5852	2.90
Montgomery				2	13			15	10118	1.48
Stewart									626	0.00
Houston									503	0.00
Dickson					9			9	1846	4.87
Humphreys									725	0.00
Hickman					2			2	1116	1.79
Maury					37			37	9808	3.77
Marshall					5			5	2380	2.10
Lincoln					2			2	4058	0.49
Giles					16			16	7563	2.12
Lawrence									720	0.00
Lewis									389	0.00
Perry					4			4	239	1.67
Wayne									406	0.00
Decatur					15	1		16	875	1.83
Hardin									1483	0.00
McNairy									1603	0.00
Hardeman					3	9		12	8532	1.41
Chester									1881	0.00
Henderson					1			1	1693	0.59
Madison					13	113		126	18643	6.75
Haywood			1		7	14		22	17227	1.27
Crockett					12	1		13	3433	3.79
Gibson					21	19		40	9890	4.07
Carroll					11			11	4631	2.39
Benton									245	0.00
Henry			2		2	4		8	4997	1.60
Weakley						1		1	2590	0.39
Obion					3	3		6	4038	7.49
Lake					1			1	3754	0.26
Dyer					14	8		22	5117	4.32
Louderdale			2		8	13	2	25	9172	2.72
Tipton					17		3	20	11275	1.78
Fayette		1			2	11		14	21095	6.64
Shelby			1		79	19	262	363	127324	2.85
Total Tennessee	53	23	106	113	889	216	267	1667	477646	3.50
Other states	8	12	135	276	133	32	20	616		
Grand total	61	35	241	389	1022	248	287	2283		

Shelby County. Knoxville College draws students from the widest area of any of the private negro colleges, but even so its enrollment is seventy-five per cent from Knox County.

East Tennessee with the smallest negro population of the three grand divisions of the state has three of the seven colleges in the state. Moreover these three are placed rather close together in East Tennessee, being in Hawkins, Hamblen, and Knox counties. This situation finds its reflection in the fact that two of these schools are very small and that the combined Tennessee enrollment in all three of them is not equal to the Tennessee enrollment of either of the West Tennessee schools.

There is one more fact to which attention should be called. Two of the negro colleges, Knoxville College and Fisk University, enroll more out-of-state students than they do students from Tennessee. This suggests that the problem of providing enough good colleges for negroes in Tennessee is not so great as the problem of providing the negroes with enough means to attend them and with an opportunity to make some use of their education when they have attained it.

It seems clear that the general situation concerning colleges for negroes is far from satisfactory. The two small junior colleges in East Tennessee would certainly not be placed in their present locations in a planned state program. Enrollment in the four private senior colleges is almost exclusively local, except for a certain number of out-of-state students. The private colleges are not contributing largely towards a state program of higher education for negroes.

A Suggested Program for State Institutions of Higher Education

From an examination of the enrollment figures in state institutions during the past year, it has appeared that in all of these colleges except the state university - and to an extent in it as well - the great majority of students are present, not because the supposed line of specialization of the college is one in which they are particularly interested, but because they want a college education and the college in question is the one which is most conveniently located. Statistics given in Table IX show that the same thing is true of private colleges. Some of them are operated by various religious groups, others are non-denominational; some are supposed to be specialized in their interests, others give merely a general course. In all of them, however, the enrollment is primarily local in character.

It is evident that more and more the youth of the state are feeling the need of entering life with the benefit of some college education or the prestige of a college degree. But it is evident also that they either feel that these can be obtained about as well in one institution as another, or else, due to considerations of economy or to local ties of one kind or another, they choose to attend a nearby college. Even if the local college professes to have a unique vocational function, students in the vicinity who attend it because of its accessibility ignore the vocational feature and pursue their objective of general education. Even if the college requires them to take vocational courses, they do not do so with vocational intent, and hence the courses have for them only a general cultural value.

The influx of students of this kind has already forced the state institutions to halfway transform themselves into what might be called regional state colleges. By a regional state college is meant an institution which undertakes to meet the general educational needs of all students who come to it and the vocational needs of a restricted group of students. Though all the state colleges are supposed in the law to cater exclusively to the educational needs of students seeking specified types of vocational training, it is a well-known fact that hundreds of students are attending these institutions with non-vocational intent. This is true of the teachers colleges, of the normal school, of the so-called polytechnic institute, and of the University of Tennessee junior college. It can be stated in all truth that these schools are less what they were intended to be than what their patrons have made them.

It would seem that there is no valid reason why these schools should continue to struggle under the trying handicap of having either to ignore the law or to force many students into specialized vocational work for which they have no desire and no liking. On the basis of interviews which he had in these college communities, the investigator came definitely to the conclusion that many students, faculty members and townspeople object to the unwanted specialization of function which is forced upon the schools and themselves by the law. It is notable that this is particularly true of specialization in the junior colleges and in the first two years work in the senior colleges.

The obvious way out of this situation is to complete by law the change which the force of popular preference has already half accomplished: convert these schools into regional state colleges.

In order to put a college education as nearly as possible within the reach of everyone without forcing on anyone unwanted

specialization, each of the senior colleges should give a four-year general cultural course. For the first two years in all colleges, public and private, general education and nothing else should be given. The experience of the University of Tennessee Junior College and of Austin Peay Normal School, as well as the consensus of expert educational opinion, indicates that the attempt of any school to perform a unique function on the junior college level is sooner or later doomed to failure.

This does not mean however that specialized work should be abandoned altogether. It should be abandoned in the lower division, the freshman and sophomore years; but in the upper division, the junior and senior years, each school should select definite fields in which to specialize, and should take special pride in its course offerings in these fields. These fields of upper division specialization should be very carefully allotted by the State Board of Education in order to achieve a unified program of higher education for the state. The objective should be to avoid needless duplication of effort in the upper divisions of the various schools, and yet to provide every type of specialization suited to the undergraduate level for which there is a genuine demand.

In the four year colleges, students who do not wish to pursue any line of vocational specialization on the undergraduate level could be continued in selected fields of academic training and be graduated with a liberal arts degree. Those who wished to concentrate on a vocational field which the school was particularly well qualified to present could begin to do so in their junior year, graduating with a degree in that particular work. All others would be encouraged to transfer at the end of the sophomore year to the state university or to some other school which offered in the upper division the special type of work which they wished to pursue.

The president of the Austin Peay Normal School expressed the belief that there is no place for a two-year institution in a modern program of teacher education. He favors organizing the school into a general junior college which stresses prevocational training for teachers, such as directed observation of demonstration teaching, and adding a junior and later a senior year which shall be devoted exclusively to the training of elementary teachers.

The executive officer of the University of Tennessee Junior College stated that in his opinion there is no place in a state program of higher education for a junior college devoted exclusively to "agriculture, home economics, and industrial arts." He favors organizing the first two years of the school into a

general junior college. He believes that because the section in which the school is located is predominantly agricultural, and because of the excellent facilities which the college owns for offering this work, a senior college should be organized which would specialize in agriculture and home economics.

If the principles supported in this chapter are correct - that all colleges should be organized into general junior colleges in the lower division, that every senior college should specialize in definite fields of higher education in the junior and senior years, that higher education on the junior college level should be made as accessible as possible to all sections of the state, and that the state should accept the responsibility of providing higher education in regions not now adequately served by either public or private colleges - then there is justification for recommending that some responsible agency, perhaps the State Department of Education under the authority of the State Board of Education, should investigate the advisability of establishing within the reasonably near future two new state junior colleges, one in the southeastern and one in the southwestern part of Middle Tennessee. Examination of Table IX and Figure 8 reveals that these two regions are now lacking in facilities for higher education and are sending few students to college.

The decentralization of higher education is sometimes objected to on the ground that it will hurt the state university. But there is available evidence which seems to contradict any such belief. A study of yearly enrollments in the University of Tennessee shows that not until the turning of the century, 1899-1900, was a total enrollment of 300 attained. The period of most rapid growth of the university has occurred in the years since 1911 when the first state college was established. In the year 1910-11 when the university was the only state institution, its total enrollment was 428. In the year 1930-31, when it was one of seven state colleges for white students, it reached a peak enrollment of 2,633, more than six times as many. The total enrollment in all state colleges has increased from 428 in 1910-11 to 5,808 in 1933-34 (Table LIX). Even in the region of the Upper Cumberland Plateau, from which Tennessee Polytechnic Institute has drawn such astonishing enrollments since its establishment in 1916, the number of students attending the state university increased from fifteen in 1913-14 to forty-three in 1933-34.

Besides if the program of higher education which is advocated in the present chapter were adopted by the state, the university would not be in competition with the other state colleges. The University of Tennessee should perform a double function: it should be the regional state college for the central

part of East Tennessee and the university for the entire state. Its offerings in the first two years should be similar to those in the other state colleges. It should expect to draw the greater number of its freshmen and sophomores from central East Tennessee, though of course the university will always draw some junior college students from all parts of the state. As head of the public school system the university will of course continue to develop its technical and professional schools and its graduate departments to meet the needs for advanced training. With its large variety of fields of specialization the university will probably continue to attract an increasing number of students on the senior college and graduate levels.

The existing situation concerning negro colleges, described in the foregoing, seems to suggest at least two further developments in the state program, if the needs for higher education among negroes are to be met. It is suggested that the privilege of granting the Master's degree be conferred upon the state college at Nashville as soon as available facilities appear to be adequate. It is suggested that some responsible agency, perhaps the State Department of Education under the authority of the State Board of Education, should consider the advisability of establishing a new state junior college in West Tennessee, in the section where the negro population is greatest.

There would probably be little or no support for a plan of rigid state control of private colleges in Tennessee. Yet it is generally recognized that existing conditions are not satisfactory, and a certain amount of state supervision is being recommended by administrative officials of the private colleges themselves. There are at present no minimum requirements for chartering collegiate institutions in Tennessee; anybody is privileged to establish a college, and any college is allowed to confer degrees.

There is a growing conviction that it is necessary for the state to assume greater responsibility over the general program of higher education, if the public is to be assured that private institutions attain certain minimum standards of excellence, and if private and public institutions are to be coordinated into an adequate state program of higher education. There should be established by law definite minimum standards which new private institutions must meet before they will be granted a charter to operate as colleges and to grant degrees. Much more rigid requirements should be exacted for approval of existing private colleges by the state department of education. Schools which do not meet these requirements should be placed on probation, with the definite understanding that they must meet reasonable minimum requirements

within a specified number of years or lose their charters.

The recommendations of the Tennessee Educational Commission concerning the organization and administration of state institutions of higher learning are as follows:¹

It is recommended that:

1. No additional institutions of higher learning should be established or maintained by the state for years to come.
2. It be provided by law that no additional institution of higher learning should be established by the state except upon the recommendation of the State Board of Education, such recommendation to be based on a careful study of the need and evidence presented, establishing the necessity of such an institution to the state.
3. No system of public junior colleges be established in the state of Tennessee, the numerous accredited colleges of the state making such development unnecessary.
4. New departments should be added to institutions already established only upon the demonstration of fact that it is economy for the state to provide the proposed facilities rather than to send those needing such training elsewhere.
5. The first two years of college work in all institutions supported at public expense should be devoted primarily to general cultural training, and such prerequisites as are necessary for specialized training.
6. The teachers colleges, Tennessee Polytechnic Institute, and University of Tennessee, in the third and fourth years of college work, should provide specialized training as necessary, avoiding as far as possible duplication of effort. The Agricultural and Industrial College for Negroes should be continued and improved in line with the general functions set out for the institution.
7. The enrollments of the various state institutions of higher learning should be limited on the basis of the estimated needs of the state, the facilities of the institution, and the functions of the institutions as prescribed by law.
8. A strong graduate school, adapted to the needs of Tennessee, should be developed at the University of Tennessee.
9. The state of Tennessee should provide more adequate funds for its institutions of higher learning in order to secure more efficient results.

The following are the recommendations of the Commission concerning private educational institutions in Tennessee.²

¹Op. cit., pp. 50-51.

²Op. cit., p. 92.

It is recommended that:

1. Definite steps should be taken to bring about greater coordination between public and private educational institutions.

2. The state should set up standards and provide supervision for private educational institutions whenever they endeavor to train for services needed by the state, and for which state licenses or certificates are required.

3. Under general state supervision, plans should be made for the coordination of educational facilities, both public and private, in regard to curricula, standards, and services to be rendered.

The recommendations of the Commission concerning the chartering of educational institutions are as follows:¹

It is recommended that:

1. The State Board of Education should be empowered to determine the standards for the chartering of all educational institutions seeking to establish themselves in the state.

2. The State Board of Education should be given broad powers to prescribe minimum standards for the issuing of diplomas and certificates, the granting of degrees, the chartering of necessary institutions, and the defining of their functions.

3. The State Board of Education should be required to publish both the standards which it sets up for the chartering of institutions, and, from time to time, the list of institutions meeting the requirements set up by the Board.

4. Schools, colleges, and universities should be placed in these classifications:

- a. Those incorporated prior to 1870.
- b. Those that have received charters since that time.
- c. Those which are incorporated in the future.

5. The State Board of Education should be charged with the responsibility of inspecting all chartered institutions from time to time, and of determining that the institutions thus chartered are complying with the requirements set forth.

The evidence secured in the present investigation indicates that the above recommendations concerning the general program of higher education are on the whole defensible and in the interest of commendable public policy. But it seems necessary to add certain qualifying statements. It is difficult to understand how the Commission could have felt justified in recommending, without any reservations whatever, that "No additional institutions of

¹Op. cit., p. 95.

higher learning should be established or maintained by the state for years to come." If equality of opportunity is the objective of the state program of education, then evidence presented in the present chapter seems to indicate that serious consideration should be given within the reasonably near future to the establishment of two new junior colleges for white students and one new junior college for negro students. Also, there is a distinct possibility that it might prove to be in the public interest for the state to take over certain private institutions. An administrative official in one private college in a section of the state which is not adequately supplied with facilities for higher education stated that the board of trustees of the school would favor donating the school to the state if a first class state institution would be established and maintained.

If the recommendations concerning the chartering of educational institutions are to be enacted into law, it would seem that, in order to enforce the standards set up, it would be necessary to make provision for placing on probation institutions which failed to meet requirements, and for withdrawing charters from institutions which remained on probation a stated number of years.

The Place of Teacher Education In A State Program of Higher Education

It has already been established that because academic subjects constitute the major part of the course of study of a student who is preparing to teach, no institution can prepare teachers which does not include as an integral part of its organization strong academic departments. Unlike the education of lawyers, for instance, the education of teachers cannot be accomplished in separate institutions which offer only professional subjects. This really means that every teacher training institution must include a certain minimum number of the departments which are ordinarily considered as integral parts of so-called general or liberal arts colleges.

Two implications seem to grow out of the nature of the course of study in a teacher education curriculum. The first of these is that teacher education is a proper function of a standard general or liberal arts college. The second is that no so-called teachers college can really prepare teachers which does not include in its organization a minimum number of the departments ordinarily identified with a general college.

In earlier times the conviction was that any well educated person was qualified to teach, or could become qualified

rather readily by practicing the art. It seems unfortunate that with the coming of professional subjects as a part of the course of study in teacher education there developed in many quarters such an atmosphere of mystery as to what constitutes adequate preparation for a teacher, and so much suspicion in institutions as to the effectiveness of the programs of teacher education in other institutions. When visiting liberal arts colleges the investigator was sometimes told by professors and administrative officers that the standards in the state teachers colleges were low, and that different superintendents had said that teachers trained in the particular institution were superior to those educated in teachers colleges or in certain other general colleges. When visiting teachers colleges he was sometimes informed that the education of a teacher is an exacting and painstaking process which simply cannot be performed properly by a general or liberal arts college. It should be emphasized that while the education of teachers is too often poorly done, there is nothing mysterious about the process. Any institution with adequate equipment, satisfactory facilities for observation and student teaching, and able academic and professional faculties, can prepare teachers. Many institutions do not meet these standards, but they are nonetheless understandable and attainable.

It will be remembered that of the thirty-nine colleges in Tennessee, thirty-seven gave courses in Education in 1933-34. It is obvious that this is an organization capable of producing many more teachers than the state requires. The number of new teachers without previous experience employed in 1933-34 was perhaps not over 1,500 (Chapter VIII). About 4,303 teachers secured their first certificates in 1933 (Chapter VIII). In 1933-34, the number of enrollments in Education in the colleges of Tennessee was 19,896; the number of student years (arbitrarily defined as nine quarter hours) in Education taken was 7,270 5/9. The facts here reviewed indicate that in properly relating teacher education to the general program of higher education, three problems must be faced. The need for teacher education must be determined as accurately as possible; it is manifestly not in accord with sound public policy to give courses in Education to thousands when only hundreds can secure teaching positions. The institutions, both private and public, which are to offer teacher preparation, must be selected; in making the selections consideration must be given to the facilities of the institutions to give teacher education and the needs of the state and of the various sections for teachers. Finally, the training of teachers for special kinds of positions must be allocated to institutions which are suited because of location and facilities to offer the training needed.

Leadership in developing an adequate state program of teacher education which is properly related to the general program of higher education must be assumed by some responsible agency, presumably the State Department of Education acting under authority of the State Board of Education.

Public sentiment in Tennessee would probably never support any rigid prescription of the role of private institutions in teacher education. But it appears that legislation will probably be enacted which provides that private colleges must meet certain standards in equipment, faculty, and facilities for observation and student teaching before they will be recognized as institutions for the preparation of teachers. When these minimum standards are met, determination of the specific offerings in Education will probably remain the prerogative of the institution itself.

Perhaps ideally the state institutions should serve the double function of providing leadership in teacher education and offering the teacher preparation which is needed to supplement the offerings of the private institutions. But because of the relative independence of the private colleges, it will probably be impossible to attain this nice adjustment of supply to demand. But in a broad general way, this should be the program of state colleges in teacher preparation.

The teachers colleges, like the other state colleges, should all be transformed legally into regional state colleges. They should offer general education in the lower division. The specific fields in which they should specialize in the upper division should be determined by careful study of the needs of the region in which they are situated and of the state as a whole. But undoubtedly for the present at least these colleges should retain the teacher preparation work in the upper division, and in some respects, notably student teaching, it should perhaps even be strengthened. In order to provide for the needs of students in the region who are interested only in general cultural education on the undergraduate level, with specialization in selected academic fields in the upper division, these colleges should offer two degrees: a teacher's degree for students preparing to enter the profession of teaching, and an arts degree for students interested only in academic training.

The teacher education offerings should not be identical in all the regional colleges which give courses in Education. For instance, one school should be designated to train commercial teachers for high schools. A state-wide plan, formulated in its broad outlines by the state legislature with the advice of expert educators, and worked out in detail by the State Board of Education,

should govern the amount and kind of training to be offered in each school in order to avoid needless duplication and still provide every type of college training for which there is a real need.

The general plan for the organization of state institutions of higher education which is here suggested has been commented upon favorably in a recent publication:

Another suggestion is that all teachers colleges be developed into institutions having four year curriculums. This change would eliminate the two-year and three-year curriculums now common and would make possible the devotion of the first two years to the academic courses which are usually given in junior colleges. Teachers colleges could then function as local state junior colleges for students of different types, and could administer special professional courses for teachers to selected groups of students in the last two years. Such an arrangement might not relieve altogether the tension between state supported institutions, but it would tend to close the breach now existing. It would certainly increase the opportunities for higher education open to the young people of the country.¹

The investigator encountered considerable sentiment in favor of eliminating the word "Teachers" from the names of state institutions which now have that word in their official titles. Several administrative officials at the teachers colleges stated that they favored such a change in the names of the institutions. At the State Teachers College, Johnson City, a vote was taken among a group of students on the question whether they would favor changing the name of the school so as to omit the exclusive designation "Teachers." They voted five to one that such a change be made. Several said they knew students who had refused to enter the school because of the exclusive nature of the institution as indicated by its name. Though by no means an essential part of the needed reorganization of the program of higher education in the state, if it is in the public interest to make these institutions primarily regional colleges and only secondarily teacher training institutions, then it does seem in order to give them new names which omit the exclusive designation "Teachers."

As the regional college for the central part of East Tennessee, and as head of the public school system of the state, the University of Tennessee has both a general and a special function in teacher education. In its undergraduate departments, it should continue to prepare classroom teachers, though the work should be confined to the senior college level. In its graduate departments, it should prepare students for positions as supervisors, school administrators and instructors in first class high schools and

¹C.H. Judd, Education and Social Progress, pp. 189-190.

institutions of higher learning. It should develop its graduate departments as rapidly as the facilities of the school and the needs of the state seem to justify.

Students of the history of education know that the normal school was Prussian in origin. In Prussia similar schools trained selected members of the lower classes to teach the children of the lower classes. The blight of this lowly origin has hung over American normal schools for almost a hundred years now. Their difficulties in getting their course credits accepted by universities and liberal arts colleges, and their struggles to obtain recognition by accrediting agencies are too well known to need recounting. In recent years many normal schools have attempted to attain academic acceptability by converting themselves into so-called teachers colleges, but it is an obvious fact that in this endeavor they have been only partially successful. The separate teacher training institution on the undergraduate level remains an uncoordinated unit in the American system of higher education. The suggestion which is here made is that the state of Tennessee repudiate completely the idea that the education of a teacher is a separate and perchance somewhat inferior type of education, by regarding the preparation of teachers as merely one of the functions of a planned and coordinated state program of higher education, which includes a great state university and strong regional state colleges, and which clearly recognizes the important place of the private colleges in the general program of higher education in the state.

PART IV

CONCLUSION

CHAPTER XI

CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY

The findings of the present investigation suggest that there are certain problems which the state of Tennessee must meet if she would provide for her public schools an adequate supply of highly trained teachers and administrative officers.

All of these problems may be conceived of as growing out of two issues: the first is creating an administrative program in public education which will actually professionalize the profession of teaching; the second is developing a teacher education program which is adequate to meet the needs of the state, and which is properly integrated with a carefully planned general program of higher education.

It is difficult to enumerate these problems. They are so interrelated that they almost defy any attempt at classification. The following list is at least suggestive.

Problems Relating to the Administrative Program Which Affect the Teaching Personnel

Eliminating the present plan of dual control of county school systems.- Two ways of effecting the desirable change have been suggested: the county court could be relieved of its present functions in school administration and these delegated to the county school board and the people; or the county school board could be abolished and all rightful functions of a deliberative body of laymen in school administration delegated to the county court. The first plan is the one which is usually recommended, though the second is not without support. The second would be the easier plan to adopt in Tennessee because it would not require a constitutional amendment as would the first.

Eliminating the privilege of enacting private laws which nullify the provisions of general laws.- Of course the easier way to effect this needed reform would be through a decision of the supreme court declaring such laws unconstitutional, and it is generally agreed among legal authorities in the state that the matter is at least a debatable question. The other and more difficult way would be through amendment to the state constitution. Concerning this matter the Tennessee Educational Commission recommends that:

- (1) Private acts affecting public education in conflict with general laws should be repealed.
- (2) Steps should be taken to create strong public opinion against the passage of private acts affecting education.
- (3) Carefully planned general legislation should be enacted by the Legislature which will be fair to all areas concerned, and will make unnecessary the passage of private acts.
- (4) An amendment to the constitution of the state forbidding the passage of private acts should be enacted.¹

It must be remembered that the state constitution has not been amended since its adoption in 1870 and the steps required to amend it are lengthy and complicated.

Professionalizing and dignifying the county superintendency.- This will call for educating the general public as to the importance of the office, for raising the qualifications which are required of occupants of the office, and for defining the functions of the superintendent with such clearness and definiteness that he will be recognized in all counties as the administrative head of the public school system.

Defining the province of the county board with such clarity that there will be no possible conflict between the functions of the superintendent and those of the board.- Students of school administration recommend that the law should require the board to act as a unit, should prohibit individual board members from assuming administrative functions, and should require the board to limit its appointments to persons recommended by the county superintendent. These recommendations would apply to the county court if the county board should be abolished and its rightful functions assigned to the county court.

Providing adequate financial support for the public schools.- There are at least two important sources of taxation which have not been utilized in Tennessee, the state income tax and the general sales tax. The state income tax has been declared unconstitutional by the supreme court. The enactment of a general sales tax is advocated by the State Teachers Association, and other civic bodies, as well as by many leading citizens.

Increasing and standardizing the length of the term in elementary schools.- Under the present system of financial support, this can be brought about only through increased state aid to poorer counties.

Providing security of tenure for capable and successful teachers.- In many communities there is need for greater certainty that good teachers will be retained in their positions, and for

¹Op. cit., p. 31.

less probability that certain poor teachers will be retained. The attainment of this desirable objective depends upon many factors. People need to be educated to a greater appreciation of good teachers. Petty local politics must be eliminated from the handling of school affairs. Individual board members must be prohibited by law from interfering with the rightful prerogative of the county superintendent to recommend all teachers for employment and retention. County superintendents who prove unworthy of this responsibility should be replaced.

Establishing in every school system a salary schedule which provides a maximum salary for successful experienced teachers which is decidedly larger than the minimum salary paid to beginners.- The inauguration of such a policy would undoubtedly be of material aid in inducing young people of ability to prepare for, enter, and remain in the teaching profession for the period of their employment lifetime.

Completely eliminating every vestige of the system which makes teaching in some counties a political job rather than a profession.- This cannot be attained in some communities until people are properly educated as to the importance and dignity of the position of a teacher. Also, it cannot come until individual board members are prevented from assuming prerogatives which rightfully belong to the county superintendent.

Completely divorcing the State Commissioner of Education from any dominance by partisan politics.- Many students of education believe it would be a more satisfactory administrative arrangement if the commissioner were appointed by the State Board of Education. Others declare the present plan of appointment by the governor would be entirely satisfactory if only able men who are devoted to public service are elected governor.

Effecting the needed coordination of the entire state system of public education.- One plan which has found support would abolish the Board of Trustees of the University of Tennessee and vest its functions in the State Board of Education. Another and less drastic plan which has been suggested would provide for the appointment of a coordinating committee composed of members of the two boards.

Recruiting a larger percentage of young men of ability for the profession.- Many students of education believe this problem will be solved when public school teaching attains the status of a worthy profession, which yields a living wage, which provides a reasonable increment in salary from time to time, and which affords security of tenure to those who attain success in the work.

Providing that vacancies in teaching positions shall be filled by the best qualified teachers available.- This will

probably call for the establishment of a central employment service, perhaps in the State Department of Education; and for abandonment of extreme application of the policy of employing local teachers.

Raising the minimum requirements for new teachers set by county and city systems.- To attain this school boards must be convinced of the possibility and the desirability of restricting appointments to the best trained teachers available.

Raising the standards for teacher certification in the state.- Looked at from a long-range point of view, this seems to be a matter of social evolution. Probably there will be a progressive upward revision of the requirements for certification for many years to come. Practically all responsible agencies now recommend a minimum requirement for certification of two years in college; but it is also being recommended that the minimum be raised to three and then four years within the reasonably near future. From the standpoint of the available supply of teachers and the number of persons preparing to teach, Tennessee is in position to raise her present standards materially; but it seems a reasonable proposition to say that salaries should be increased as standards for certification are raised.

Problems Concerning A Planned State Program of Teacher Education

Attaining a balance between the demand for teachers and the number of teachers educated.- This will probably call for some plan by which official estimates will be made of the number of new teachers required each year, so that institutions which prepare teachers may plan their schedules accordingly.

Developing a planned program of teacher education which is part of a larger general program of higher education.- The objective of the teacher education program should be to insure that an adequate supply of well prepared teachers will be available for the public schools of the state. The objective of the larger general program of higher education should be to provide, in so far as is possible, equality of educational opportunity for all youths of ability in the state.

Attaining the benefits to be had from agencies for the training of teachers in service.- Perhaps renewed emphasis should be given to the fact that the education of a teacher is a lifetime process, no matter how superior may have been his preparation before entering service.

Administering the program of studies in teacher education curricula.- Perhaps this will call for critical study of progres-

sive trends in teacher education for many years to come.

Providing the needed supervision of teacher education in the state.- That such supervision is required is manifestly evident. After guiding principles are formulated, the function of inspection and supervision must be assumed by some responsible agency or agencies. The Tennessee Educational Commission has recommended that this function be assumed by the State Department of Education, acting under authority conferred by the State Board of Education.

APPENDIX

TABLE LXII

ANALYSIS OF EDUCATION COURSES OFFERED
IN TENNESSEE COLLEGES, 1933-34

Courses Offered	Students Enrolled	Quarter Hours Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
Private Four Year Colleges for Whites				
<u>King College</u>				
Introductory course in General Psychology	38	3	114	12 2/3
Educational Psychology	42	4 1/2	189	21
General Course in the History of Education	24	4 1/2	108	12
Elementary Statistics	24	4 1/2	108	12
Educational Sociology	21	4 1/2	94 1/2	10 1/2
Educational Administration	21	4 1/2	76 1/2	10 1/2
Philosophy of Education	17	4 1/2	76 1/2	8 1/2
School Hygiene	37	4 1/2	166 1/2	18 1/2
Total	224		951	105 2/3
<u>Milligan College</u>				
Educational Psychology	21	4 1/2	94 1/2	10 1/2
Introduction to Education	64	4 1/2	228	32
Methods and Management Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	58	4 1/2	261	29
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Methods of Teaching Reading	2	4 1/2	9	1
Secondary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	15	4 1/2	67 1/2	7 1/2
Tests and Measurements	13	4 1/2	58 1/2	6 1/2
Directed Teaching				
Secondary School	7	4 1/2	31 1/2	3 1/2
Educational Sociology	2	4 1/2	9	1
Principles of Education	4	4 1/2	18	2
The Curriculum	12	4 1/2	54	6
Total	202		909	101

TABLE LXII (CONTINUED)

Courses Offered	Student Enrolled	Quarter Hours Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
<u>Tusculum College</u>				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	54	3	162	18
Psychology Applied to Education	40	4½	180	20
Education Psychology				
Methods and Management, Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	77	4½	346½	38½
Secondary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	18	4½	81	9
Tests and Measurements	14	4½	63	7
Directed Teaching				
Secondary School	3	4½	13½	1½
Principles of Secondary Education	23	4½	100½	11½
Educational Sociology	4	4½	18	2
Total	233		967½	107½
<u>Carson-Newman College</u>				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	26	3	78	8 2/3
Psychology Applied to Education				
Educational Psychology	26	4½	117	13
Child Psychology	7	3	21	2 1/3
Adolescent Psychology	9	3	27	3
Introduction to Education	110	4½	495	55
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	125	4½	562½	62½
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Rural School Methods	16	3	48	5 1/3
Secondary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	31	4½	139½	15½
Tests and Measurements	12	4½	54	6
Directed Teaching				
Elementary School	41	3	123	13 1/3
History of Education				
General Course in the History of Education	15	4½	67½	7½
Principles of Secondary Education	24	4½	108	12
Educational Sociology	29	3	87	9 2/3
Administration				
Junior High School Administration	27	4½	121½	13½
Total	498		2049	227 2/3

TABLE LXII (CONTINUED)

Courses Offered	Students Enrolled	Quarter Hours Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
<u>Lincoln Memorial University</u>				
Psychology Applied To Education	42	3	126	14
Educational Psychology	95	3	285	31 2/3
Introduction to Education				
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	200	3	600	66 2/3
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Rural School Methods	42	3	126	14
Secondary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	11	3	33	3 2/3
Tests and Measurements	16	3	48	5 1/3
History of Education				
History of Education in the United States	51	3	153	17
Principles of Secondary Education	20	3	60	6 2/3
Administration				
High School Administration	17	3	51	5 2/3
Administration of Village and Consolidated Schools	34	3	102	11 1/3
Supervision of Instruction				
Supervision in the Elementary School	9	3	27	3
Philosophy of Education	11	3	33	3 2/3
Total	548		1644	182 2/3
<u>Maryville College</u>				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	144	3	432	48
Psychology Applied to Education				
Educational Psychology	23	4 1/2	103 1/2	11 1/2
Child Psychology	29	4 1/2	130 1/2	14 1/2
Adolescent Psychology	17	4 1/2	76 1/2	8 1/2
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	42	4 1/2	189	21
Secondary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	80	4 1/2	360	40
Tests and Measurements	5	4 1/2	22 1/2	2 1/2
Elementary Statistics	17	4 1/2	76 1/2	8 1/2
Directed Teaching				
Secondary School	37	4 1/2	166 1/2	18 1/2

TABLE LXII (CONTINUED)

Courses Offered	Students Enrolled	Quarter Hours Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
<u>Maryville College - continued</u>				
History of Education				
General Course in History of Education	84	4½	378	42
Principles of Secondary Education	91	4½	409½	45½
Philosophy of Education	30	4½	135	15
Administration				
Educational Administration	5	4½	22½	2½
Total	604		2502	278
<u>University of Chattanooga</u>				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	71	3	213	23 2/3
Psychology Applied to Education				
Educational Psychology	32	4½	144	16
Introduction to Education	29	4½	130½	14½
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	27	4½	121½	13½
Secondary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	22	4½	99	11
Tests and Measurements	18	3	54	6
Directed Teaching				
Elementary School	16	4½	72	8
Secondary School	17	4½	76½	8½
Principles of Secondary Education	14	4½	63	7
Directed Reading Course	1	4½	4½	½
Total	247		978	108 2/3
<u>Tennessee College</u>				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	13	3	39	4 1/3
Psychology Applied to Education				
Child Psychology	13	3	39	4 1/3
Psychology of Elementary Educa- tion	27	3	81	9
Introduction to Education	33	3	99	11
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	25	3	75	8 1/3
Secondary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	5	3	15	1 2/3

TABLE LXII (CONTINUED)

Courses Offered	Students Enrolled	Quarter Hour Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
<u>Tennessee College (continued)</u>				
Tests and Measurements	3	3	9	1
History of Education				
General Course in History of Education	54	2	108	12
Educational Sociology	34	2	68	7 5/9
Philosophy of Education	5	3	15	1 2/3
Total	212		548	60 8/9
<u>Cumberland University</u>				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	30	3	90	10
Psychology Applied to Education				
Educational Psychology	3	4 1/2	13 1/2	1 1/2
Child Psychology	3	4 1/2	13 1/2	1 1/2
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	70	4 1/2	315	35
Secondary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	15	4 1/2	67 1/2	7 1/2
Directed Teaching				
Secondary School	19	4 1/2	85 1/2	9 1/2
History of Education				
General Course in History of Education	19	4 1/2	85 1/2	9 1/2
Principles of Secondary Education	14	4 1/2	63	7
Total	173		733 1/2	81 1/2
<u>Vanderbilt University</u>				
History of Education				
General Course in History of Education	92	3	276	30 2/3
Educational Sociology	66	3	198	22
Philosophy of Education	45	3	135	15
Current Educational Theories and Practices	49	3	147	16 1/3
Graduate Courses	12	3	36	4
Total	264		792	88

TABLE LXII (CONTINUED)

Courses Offered	Students Enrolled	Quarter Hours Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
<u>George Peabody College for Teachers</u>				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	55	3	165	18 1/3
Psychology Applied to Education				
Child Psychology	107	4	428	47 5/9
Psychology of the Abnormal or Exceptional Child	26	4	104	11 5/9
Psychology of Learning	6	4	24	2 2/3
Psychology of Speech and Language	23	2	46	5 1/9
Psychology of Elementary Education	13	4	52	5 7/9
Psychology of Secondary Education	45	4	180	20
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	206		694	77 1/9
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Methods in Health Education	20	4	80	8 8/9
Teaching Piano Playing in the 4th, 5th, and 6th Grades	3	4	12	1 1/3
Secondary School				
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Teaching English in the Secondary School	33	4	132	14 2/3
Teaching History in the Secondary School	14	4	56	6 2/9
Teaching General Science	6	4	24	2 2/3
Teaching Modern Languages	34	2	68	7 5/9
Teaching Latin	2	3	6	2/3
Extra Curricular Activities	37	2	74	8 2/9
Tests and Measurements	4	4	16	1 7/9
Elementary Statistics	21	4	84	9 1/3
Observation	15	4	60	6 2/3
Directed Teaching				
Elementary School	31	4	124	13 7/9
Secondary School	68		230	25 5/9
History of Education				
General Course in History of Education	38	4	152	16 8/9
Principles of Secondary Education	53	4	212	23 5/9
Administration				
Junior High School Administration	22	4	88	9 7/9
The Curriculum	16	4	64	7 1/9
The Elementary School Curriculum	5	4	20	2 2/9

TABLE LXII (CONTINUED)

Courses Offered	Students Enrolled	Quarter Hours Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
George Peabody College for Teachers (continued)				
Supervision of Instruction				
Supervision in the Element- ary School	1	4	4	4/9
Adult Education	4	4	16	1 7/9
Graduate Courses	527		1910	212 2/9
Total	1435		5125	568 4/9
Union University				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	9	3	27	3
Psychology Applied to Education				
Educational Psychology	69	3	207	23
Child Psychology	47	3	141	15 2/3
Adolescent Psychology	21	3	63	7
Introduction to Education	83	3	249	27 2/3
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	113	3	339	37 2/3
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Rural School Methods	165	3	495	55
Primary Methods	13	3	39	4 1/3
Teaching Art in the Grades	7	3	21	2 1/3
Secondary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	18	3	54	6
Tests and Measurements	11	3	33	3 2/3
History of Education				
General Course in History of Education	16	3	48	5 1/3
Principles of Secondary Educa- tion	16	3	48	5 1/3
Educational Sociology	45	3	135	15
Administration				
Elementary School Administra- tion	51	3	153	17
Total	684		2052	229
Lambuth College				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	101	3	303	33 2/3

TABLE LXII (CONTINUED)

Courses Offered	Students Enrolled	Quarter Hours Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
Lambuth College (continued)				
Psychology Applied to Education	89	2	178	19 7/9
Educational Psychology	69	3	207	23
Child Psychology	15	3	45	5
Adolescent Psychology				
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	154	3	462	51 1/3
Secondary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	10	3	30	3 1/3
History of Education				
General Course in the History of Education	30	3	90	10
Principles of Secondary Education	36	3	108	12
Philosophy of Education	12	3	36	4
Total	516		1459	162 1/9
Bethel College				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	50	3	150	16 2/3
Psychology Applied to Education	36	3	108	12
Child Psychology				
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	43	3	129	14 1/3
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Methods of Teaching				
Arithmetic	50	3	150	16 2/3
Secondary School				
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Teaching Science	48	3	144	16
Teaching Social Science	78	3	234	26
History of Education				
General Course in the History of Education	75	3	225	25
Principles of Secondary Education	8	3	24	2 2/3
Total	388		1164	129 1/3

TABLE LXII (CONTINUED)

Courses Offered	Students Enrolled	Quarter Hours Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
<u>Southwestern University</u>				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	78	3	234	26
Psychology Applied to Education				
Educational Psychology	32	4½	144	16
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	20	4½	90	10
Secondary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	22	4½	99	11½
Tests and Measurements	11	4½	49½	5½
Directed Reading Course	13	4½	58½	6½
Total	76		675	75
Total, Private Four Year Colleges for Whites	6404		22549	2505 4/9
<u>Private Junior Colleges For Whites</u>				
<u>Hiwassee College</u>				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	19	3	57	6 1/3
Psychology Applied to Education				
Educational Psychology	16	3	48	5 1/3
Child Psychology	22	3	66	7 1/3
Introduction to Education	18	3	54	6
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	80	3	240	26 2/3
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Methods of Teaching Geography	35	3	105	11 2/3
Methods of Teaching Reading	23	3	69	7 2/3
Methods of Teaching Arithmetic	14	3	42	4 2/3
Tests and Measurements	21	3	63	7
Directed Teaching				
Elementary School	38	9	342	38
Total	286		1086	120 2/3

TABLE LXII (CONTINUED)

Courses Offered	Students Enrolled	Quarter Hours Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
<u>Tennessee Wesleyan College</u>				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	32	3	96	10 2/3
Psychology Applied to Education				
Educational Psychology	24	4	96	10 2/3
Child Psychology	22	4	88	9 7/9
Introduction to Education	63	4	252	28
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	131	4	524	58 2/9
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Methods of Teaching				
Arithmetic	3	4	12	1 1/3
Primary Methods	17	4	68	7 5/9
Teaching Children's Literature	14	4	56	6 2/9
Secondary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	3	4	12	1 1/3
Tests and Measurements	32	4	128	14 2/9
Directed Teaching				
Elementary School	22	4	88	9 7/9
Educational Sociology	14	4	56	6 2/9
Administration				
Educational Administration	5	4	20	2 2/9
Hygiene				
School Hygiene	14	4	56	6 2/9
Total	396		1552	172 4/9
<u>Ward-Belmont School</u>				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	59	3	177	19 2/3
Psychology Applied to Education				
Child Psychology	50	4 1/2	225	25
Introduction to Education	14	4 1/2	63	7
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	11	4 1/2	49 1/2	5 1/2
Total	134		514 1/2	57 1/6

TABLE LXII (CONTINUED)

Courses Offered	Students Enrolled	Quarter Hours Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
<u>David Lipscomb College</u>				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	44	3	132	14 2/3
Psychology Applied to Education	42	3	126	14
Educational Psychology	36	3	108	12
Child Psychology				
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	225	3	675	75
Special Course in Methods and Management				
Methods of Teaching				
Arithmetic	8	2	16	1 7/9
Secondary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	25	3	75	8 1/3
Directed Teaching				
Secondary School	1	3	3	1/3
Principles of Secondary Education	24	3	72	8
The Curriculum				
The High School Curriculum	24	3	72	8
Total	429		1279	142 1/9
<u>Trevecca College</u>				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	18	3	54	6
Psychology Applied to Education	16	3	48	5 1/3
Educational Psychology	14	3	42	4 2/3
Child Psychology				
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	57	3	171	19
History of Education				
General Course in the History of Education	26	3	78	8 2/3
Total	131		393	43 2/3
<u>Nashville Agricultural Normal Institute</u>				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	24	3	72	8
Psychology Applied to Education				
Educational Psychology	7	4	28	3 1/9
Child Psychology	6	4	24	3 2/3

TABLE LXII (CONTINUED)

Courses Offered	Students Enrolled	Quarter Hours Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
Nashville Agricultural Normal Institute (continued)				
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	19	4	76	8 4/9
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Methods in Public Music	5	4	20	2 2/9
Methods of Teaching Reading	6	2	12	1 1/3
Teaching Woodwork	7	2	14	1 5/9
Teaching Art in the Grades	4	2	8	8/9
Secondary School				
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Teaching Home Economics	3	4	12	1 1/3
Directed Teaching				
Elementary School	7	4	28	3 1/9
History of Education				
General Course in History of Education	14	5	70	7 7/9
Total	102		364	40 4/9
<u>Martin College</u>				
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	163	4½	733½	81½
Special Course in Methods and Management				
Methods of Teaching				
Arithmetic	30	4½	135	15
Total	193		868½	96½
<u>Freed-Hardeman College</u>				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	95	3	285	31 2/3
Psychology Applied to Education				
Child Psychology	46	3	138	15 1/3
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	202	3	606	67 1/3
Special Courses in Methods and Management				

TABLE LXII (CONTINUED)

Courses Offered	Students Enrolled	Quarter Hours Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
Freed-Hardeman College (continued)				
Methods in Elementary English	124	3	372	41 1/3
Methods in Teaching History in the Elementary School	14	2	28	3 1/9
Methods of Teaching Reading	57	3	171	19
Methods of Teaching Arith- metic	84	3	252	28
Primary Methods	40	3	120	13 1/3
Teaching Children's Litera- ture	9	3	27	3
Methods of Teaching Penman- ship	5	3	15	1 2/3
Tests and Measurements	48	3	144	16
Directed Teaching Elementary School	10	4	40	4 4/9
Total	734		2198	244 2/9
Total, Private Junior Colleges for Whites.	2405		8254	917 1/9
State Junior Colleges for Whites				
<u>Austin Peay Normal School</u>				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	33	3	99	11
Psychology Applied to Education				
Educational Psychology	42	4	96	10 2/3
Methods and Management Elementary School				
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Rural School Methods	64	3	192	21 1/3
School and Community Acti- vities	35	3	105	11 2/3
Methods of Teaching Arithmetic	39	3	117	13
Directed Teaching Elementary School	30	3	90	10
History of Education				
General Course in the History of Education	31	4	124	13 7/9
Total	274		823	91 4/9

TABLE LXII (CONTINUED)

Courses Offered	Students Enrolled	Quarter Hours Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
<u>University of Tennessee Junior College</u>				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	40	3	120	13 1/3
Psychology Applied to Education				
Educational Psychology	31	3	93	10 1/3
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Rural School Methods	40	3	120	13 1/3
School and Community				
Activities	61	3	183	20 1/3
Methods of Teaching Science in the Elementary School	29	3	87	9 2/3
Total	201		603	67
Total State Junior Colleges for Whites.	475		1426	158 4/9
State Senior Colleges for Whites				
<u>State Teachers College, Johnson City</u>				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	171	3	513	57
Psychology Applied to Education				
Educational Psychology	45	3	135	15
Child Psychology	56	3	168	18 2/3
Adolescent Psychology	88	3	264	29 1/3
Psychology of Elementary Education	8	3	24	2 2/3
Psychology of Secondary Education	24	3	72	8
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	195	3	585	65
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Methods in Public School Music	28	3	84	9 1/3
School and Community Activities	64	3	192	21 1/3
Methods in Elementary English	83	3	249	27 2/3
Methods of Teaching Reading	69	3	207	23

TABLE LXII (CONTINUED)

Courses Offered	Students Enrolled	Quarter Hours Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
State Teachers College, Johnson City, (continued)				
Methods of Teaching Arith- metic	164	3	492	54 2/3
Secondary School				
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Teaching English in the Secondary School	37	3	111	12 1/3
Teaching History in the Secondary School	26	3	78	8 2/3
Teaching High School Mathematics	6	3	18	2
Teaching Home Economics	9	3	27	3
Tests and Measurements	133	3	399	44 1/3
Directed Teaching				
Elementary School	42	3	126	14
Secondary School	105	3	315	35
History of Education				
General Course in the History of Education	17	3	51	5 2/3
Principles of Secondary Education	67	3	201	22 1/3
Administration				
Educational Administration	28	3	84	9 1/3
High School Administration	20	3	60	6 2/3
Junior High School Administra- tion	6	3	18	2
The Curriculum				
The High School Curriculum	61	3	183	20 1/3
The Elementary School Curricu- lum	28	3	84	7 1/3
Supervision of Instruction	9	3	27	3
 Total	 1589		 4767	 528 2/3
State Teachers College, Murfreesboro				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	166	3	498	55 1/3
Psychology Applied to Education				
Educational Psychology	58	3	174	19 1/3
Child Psychology	95	3	285	31 2/3
Adolescent Psychology	43	3	129	14 1/3
Psychology of Secondary Education	9	3	27	3
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	298	3	894	99 1/3

TABLE LXII (CONTINUED)

Courses Offered	Students Enrolled	Quarter Hours Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
State Teachers College, Murfreesboro (continued)				
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Rural School Methods	69	3	207	23
Methods of Teaching Reading	220	3	660	73 1/3
Methods of Teaching				
Arithmetic	238	3	714	79 1/3
Primary Methods	143	3	429	44 1/3
Tests and Measurements	39	3	117	13
Observation	122	3	366	40 2/3
Directed Teaching				
Elementary School	86	3	258	28 2/3
History of Education				
History of Education in the United States	32	3	96	10 2/3
Principles of Secondary Education	81	3	243	27
Educational Sociology	14	3	42	4 2/3
Administration				
Administration of Village and Consolidated Schools	20	3	60	6 2/3
The Curriculum				
The High School Curriculum	13	3	39	4 1/3
The Elementary School Curriculum	16	3	48	5 1/3
Character Education	22	3	66	7 1/3
 Total	 1794		 5352	 598
State Teachers College, Memphis				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	257	3	771	85 2/3
Psychology Applied to Education				
Educational Psychology	190	3	570	63 1/3
Child Psychology	13	3	39	4 1/3
Psychology of the Abnormal or Exceptional Child	24	3	72	8
Adolescent Psychology	16	3	48	5 1/3
Psychology of Elementary Education	25	3	75	8 1/3
Psychology of Secondary Education	94	3	282	31 1/3
Methods and Management				
Elementary Schools				
General Course in Methods and Management	424	3	1272	141 1/3
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Rural School Methods	40	3	120	13 1/3

TABLE LXII (CONTINUED)

Courses Offered	Students Enrolled	Quarter Hours Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
State Teachers College, Memphis (continued)				
Children's Activities	37	3	111	12 1/3
Methods of Teaching Reading	165	3	495	55
Primary Methods	76	3	228	25 1/3
Secondary School				
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Extra Curricular Activities	10	3	30	3 1/3
Tests and Measurements	66	3	198	22
Directed Teaching				
Elementary School	10	3	30	3 1/3
Secondary School	107	3	321	35 2/3
History of Education				
General Course in the History of Education	33	3	99	11
Principles of Secondary Education	124	3	372	41 1/3
Philosophy of Education	36	3	108	12
Administration				
High School Administration	63	3	189	21
The Curriculum				
The Elementary School Curricu- lum	28	3	84	9 1/3
Total	1838		5514	612 2/3
Tennessee Polytechnic Institute				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	150	3	450	50
Psychology Applied to Education				
Educational Psychology	64	3	192	21 1/3
Adolescent Psychology	72	3	216	24
Psychology of Elementary Education	11	3	33	3 2/3
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	158	3	474	52 2/3
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Methods of Teaching Reading	200	3	600	66 2/3
Methods of Teaching Arithmetic	216	3	648	72
Secondary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	19	3	57	6 1/3
History of Education				
General Course in the History of Education	66	3	198	22

TABLE LXII (CONTINUED)

Courses Offered	Students Enrolled	Quarter Hours Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
Tennessee Polytechnic Institute (continued)				
Principles of Secondary Education	84	3	252	28
Administration				
Educational Administration	15	3	45	5
The Curriculum				
The High School Curriculum	39	3	117	13
The Elementary School Curriculum	22	3	66	7 1/3
Total	1116		3348	372
University of Tennessee				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	346	3	1038	115 1/3
Psychology Applied to Education				
Educational Psychology	131	3	393	43 2/3
Adolescent Psychology	42	3	126	14
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	222	3	666	74
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
School and Community Acti- vities	19	3	57	6 1/3
Methods of Teaching Science in the Elementary Grades	79	3	237	26 1/3
Secondary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	86	3	258	28 2/3
Tests and Measurements	82	3	246	27 1/3
Directed Teaching				
Elementary School	16	6	96	10 2/3
Secondary School	62	6	372	41 1/3
History of Education				
General Course in the History of Education	64	3	192	21 1/3
Principles of Secondary Education	59	3	177	19 2/3
Current Educational Problems	52	3	156	17 1/3
Administration				
Elementary School Administra- tion	11	3	33	3 2/3
The Curriculum				
The Elementary School Curricu- lum	11	3	33	3 2/3
Hygiene				
Mental Hygiene	14	3	42	4 2/3

TABLE LXII (CONTINUED)

Courses Offered	Students Enrolled	Quarter Hours Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
University of Tennessee (continued)				
Parental Education	32	3	96	10 2/3
Graduate Courses	33	3	99	11
Total	1361		4317	479 2/3
Total State Senior Colleges for Whites	7688		23298	2588 2/3
Total all Colleges for Whites .	16972		55527	6169 2/3
State Senior College for Negroes				
<u>Agricultural and Industrial</u>				
<u>State Teachers College</u>				
Psychology Applied to Education	85	3	255	28 1/3
Educational Psychology	113	3	339	37 2/3
Child Psychology	270	3	810	90
Introduction to Education				
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	201	3	603	67
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Rural School Methods	79	3	237	26 1/3
Extra Curricular Activities	103	3	309	34 1/3
Tests and Measurements	72	3	216	24
Directed Teaching				
Elementary School	102	3	306	34
Secondary School	139	3	417	46 1/3
Hygiene				
Mental Hygiene	76	3	228	25 1/3
Total	1240		3720	413 1/3
Private Four Year Colleges For Negroes				
<u>Knoxville College</u>				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	53	3	159	17 2/3
Psychology Applied to Education				
Educational Psychology	42	5	210	23 1/3

TABLE LXII (CONTINUED)

Courses Offered	Students Enrolled	Quarter Hours Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
Knoxville College - (continued)				
Introduction to Education	20	5	100	11 1/9
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	51	5	255	28 1/3
Secondary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	44	5	220	24 4/9
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Teaching English in the Secondary School	21	5	105	11 2/3
Teaching History in the Secondary School	10	5	50	5 5/9
Teaching Science in the Secondary School	16	5	80	8 8/9
Directed Teaching				
Elementary School	2	5	10	1 1/9
Secondary School	22	5	110	12 2/9
Hygiene				
School Hygiene	10	5	50	5 5/9
Total	291		1349	146 1/3
<u>Fisk University</u>				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	56	3	168	18 2/3
Psychology Applied to Education				
Educational Psychology	36	5	180	20
Child Psychology	10	5	50	5 5/9
Psychology of Secondary Education	19	5	95	10 5/9
Introduction to Education	15	5	75	8 1/3
Methods and Management				
Secondary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	18	5	90	10
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Teaching English in the Secondary School	25	5	125	13 8/9
Tests and Measurements	7	5	35	3 8/9
Observation	18	2	36	4
Directed Teaching				
Secondary School	21	5	105	11 2/3
Principles of Secondary Education	20	5	100	11 1/9
Educational Sociology	22	5	110	12 2/9
Philosophy of Education	11	5	55	6 1/9

TABLE LXII (CONTINUED)

Courses Offered	Students Enrolled	Quarter Hours Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
Fisk University (continued)				
Comparative Education	5	5	25	2 7/9
Administration				
Educational Administration	5	5	25	2 7/9
High School Administration	2	5	10	1 1/9
Guidance	12	5	60	6 2/3
Graduate Courses	10		25	2 7/9
Total	312		1369	152 1/9
Lane College				
Psychology Applied to Education				
Educational Psychology	55	3	165	18 1/3
Introduction to Education	29	3	87	9 2/3
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	234	3	702	78
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Rural School Methods	21	3	63	7
Primary Methods	90	3	270	30
Observation	33	2	66	7 1/3
Directed Teaching				
Elementary School	5	2	10	1 1/9
Principles of Secondary Education	20	3	60	6 2/3
Educational Sociology	22	3	66	7 1/3
Administration				
Elementary School Administra- tion	48	3	144	16
Total	557		1633	181 4/9
Le Moyne College				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	69	3	207	23
Psychology Applied to Education				
Educational Psychology	53	4 1/2	238 1/2	26 1/2
Child Psychology	10	3	30	3 1/3
Psychology of the Abnormal or Exceptional Child	7	4 1/2	31 1/2	3 1/2
Adolescent Psychology	6	4 1/2	27	3
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	33	3	99	11

TABLE LXII (CONTINUED)

Courses Offered	Students Enrolled	Quarter Hours Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
Le Moyne College (continued)				
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Methods in Public School Music	6	4½	27	3
Methods of Teaching Arithmetic	31	4½	139½	15½
Secondary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	17	4½	76½	8½
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Teaching English in the Secondary School	5	4½	22½	2½
Teaching History in the Secondary School	6	4½	27	3
Teaching High School Mathematics	15	4½	67½	7½
Teaching General Science	8	3	24	2 2/3
Teaching Chemistry	6	3	18	2
Tests and Measurements	11	3	33	3 2/3
Directed Teaching				
Elementary School	13	3	39	4 1/3
Secondary School	9	3	27	3
Philosophy of Education	38	4½	171	19
Administration				
Educational Administration	7	3	21	2 1/3
Total	350		1326	147 1/3
Total Private Four Year Colleges for Negroes.	1510		5677	627 2/9
Private Junior Colleges for Negroes				
Swift Memorial Junior College				
Introductory Course in General Psychology	17	3	51	5 2/3
Psychology Applied to Education				
Educational Psychology	10	3	30	3 1/3
Introduction to Education	13	3	39	4 1/3
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	24	3	72	8
Special Courses in Methods and Management				

TABLE LXII (CONTINUED)

Courses Offered	Students Enrolled	Quarter Hours Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
Swift Memorial Junior College (continued) Rural School Methods	11	3	33	3 2/3
Total	75		225	25
Morristown Normal and Agricultural Junior College				
Psychology Applied to Education	12	3	36	4
Educational Psychology	4	2	8	8/9
Child Psychology				
Methods and Management				
Elementary School				
General Course in Methods and Management	33	3	99	11
Special Courses in Methods and Management				
Methods in Public School				
Music	8	2	16	5 1/3
Methods in Elementary English	7	2	14	1 5/9
Methods of Teaching Reading	14	2	28	3 1/9
Directed Teaching				
Elementary School	21	6	126	14
Total	99		327	36 1/3
Total Private Junior Colleges for Negroes.	174		552	61 1/3
Total All Colleges for Negroes	2924		9949	1101 8/9
Total All Colleges in Tennessee	19896		65476	7270 5/9
Graduate Courses for Whites	572			227 2/9
Graduate Courses for Negroes	10			2 7/9
Total All Graduate Courses. . .	582			230

TABLE LXII (CONTINUED)

Courses Offered	Students Enrolled	Quarter Hours Credit	Student Quarter Hours	Student Years
Student Teaching in Elementary Schools	306			166
Student Teaching in Secondary Schools	713			285 5/9
Total For All Student Teaching.	1019			451 5/9
Total For All Courses in General Psychology.	2318			772 2/3
Total For All Education Courses Other Than General Psychology	17578			6497 8/9
Total For All Courses in History of Education.	781			288 7/9
Total For Introduction To Education	1041			344 2/9
Total For General Courses in Elementary Methods.	3674			1442
Total For Special Courses in Elementary Methods.	3564			1134 2/3
Total For All Courses in Elementary Methods.	7238			2576 2/3
Total For General Course in Secondary Methods	459			203 7/9
Total For Special Courses in Secondary Methods	455			170 1/3
Total For All Courses in Secondary Methods	914			374 1/9

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